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" THE ROLE OF UNESCO IN ADULT EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT "
Title of Thesis — Titre de la thèse

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA . EDMONTON
University — Université

M. ED.
Degree for which thesis was presented — Grade pour lequel cette thèse fut présentée

1982	DR. GLEN. A. EYFORD
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ROLE OF UNESCO IN ADULT EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT

by

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A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

OF MASTER OF EDUCATION

IN

COMPARATIVE-INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

FALL 1982

UNESCO

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ABSTRACT

UNESCO was born in 1945, just after the Second World War. Its Constitution, written with a hope for a better future, shows high ideals of the Organization and great faith in education. Education was considered fundamental human right and an instrument to construct "defences of peace in the minds of men". But no lasting peace can be achieved when half of the world is ignorant, illiterate, ill-fed and poor. So, UNESCO turned to adult literacy and adult education to further the causes of "human welfare", of development.

UNESCO's role in adult education and development is the theme of this study. It is based on assumption that UNESCO, since its inception, has done a substantial amount of work in the field of adult education and for the development of the Third World countries, though it had to go through many changes, both in policy and actions for the same. The work is committed to study this evolution and its effect.

The study is a historical survey of the major stages in the development of adult education as fostered by UNESCO. UNESCO has convened three international conferences on adult education during last thirty years. The first Conference was held at Elsinore, Denmark, in 1949, the second one was held at Montreal, Canada, in 1960 and the last one was held at Tokyo, Japan, in 1972. Each of these Conferences marked a stage in evolution of thinking in the field of adult education, in its nature, its implications and its scope. These Conferences provided adult education an unprecedented importance. During past thirty years adult education evolved and developed as a component in the process of development. It showed that any developmental activity can be dependent on adult education for success.

This journey from 'fundamental education' in the fifties, to 'functional literacy' in the sixties, to 'lifelong education' of the seventies, is not the consequence of rash policies but is the product of long series of activities in the area of literacy and adult education. UNESCO's greatest contribution is the realisation of the need of 'lifelong learning'. This concept is idealistic and utopian but it definitely shows the Organization's interest, not only in man's present but in his future too. As a consequence of this development new trends and new perspectives are developing in education today.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

My very special thanks go to Professor Glen A. Eyford, my supervisor, whose guidance and encouragement facilitated my completion of this study. I am indebted to Dr. R. S. Pannu for suggesting the area of study. My sincere thanks are extended to Dr. M. K. Bacchus for his interest, advice and invaluable suggestions.

I wish to thank the members of my supervisory committee, Prof. D. R. Pugh and Dr. H. W. Roberts for their grateful assistance.

My thanks are also due to Professor P. J. Miller, Chairman, for his encouragement and to the Department of Educational Foundations for providing financial assistantship during the period of my Masters programme.

I am particularly indebted to Canadian Commission for UNESCO, Ottawa, and "Literacy, Adult Education and Rural Development Division", UNESCO, Paris for sending me relevant material required for the study. I was impressed with the promtitude with which the material came in.

Finally, I extend thanks to my husband, family and friends for their steadfast moral support at all times.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In every age and in each community there always was some kind of traditional pattern of adult learning, which was mostly informal and unorganised but was directed to the whole population. This form of learning was imparted to adults (largely by oral instruction in the traditional societies), to enable them to enrich their everyday lives. Later, the conventional education for children was introduced which was organised and formal and directed to a special group in society. In the course of history informal adult education lost its importance as formal education was given more and more emphasis in development plans. Adult education was treated as a poor relation, and almost everywhere it was regarded as a social service, "as a remedial backstop dealing with the omissions of the formal education system."[1].

Today adult education has emerged as an important discipline again and has assumed some critical functions. It has been called a human sub-culture[2], and is becoming more and more important in the social and political context, because, since Hegel and Marx the term "humanism" is not a mere classical educational ideal but also involves the elimination of human self-alienation and the completion of the humanization process for all mankind. Today adult learning is regarded as 'social learning', which means learning in groups, by doing things together, with a social goal[3]. Recently, adult education has evolved as a component to development, as a practical and real phenomenon, which can bring in brotherhood among different nations. It has shown a way and made the industrialized nations think of the development of the Third World and work for common purpose – for human welfare. There is also a strong economic component linked with development which makes adult education to be considered as a vehicle of economic and technical development. This realistic change gave a sharp turn to the conception of value free education for self-realization in social context. This change was the verbal expression for some basic alterations in the development of adult education, which finally led to a 'functionality debate' at UNESCO conferences, in which "cognitive goals" were considered as valuable as "affective aims"'[4].

---

[1] John Lowe, The Education of Adults, a World Perspective., op. cit., p.19

[2] H.S.Bhola in discussions of International Expert Panel at Dizine, Iran, quoted from Adult Education as a Factor in International Cooperation, By Werner G. Keweloh and Kwa O. Hagan, 1976, Africa Bureau Papers, No. 10, German Adult Education Association, Africa Bureau ACCRA, 1976, p.3

[3] Here adult education is considered as "social learning" which brings up the oft-debated question whether adult education aims at the development of the individual or the progress of society. (See W.L. Schroeder, "Adult Education Defined and Described" and P. Sheats "Introduction". Both articles are in R.M. Smith, G.F. Aker and J.R. Kidd (eds.), Handbook of Adult Education New York, Macmillan, 1970.)

In the developing countries, in the first place, no such dichotomy is possible. Secondly, I think that these two purposes are not in competition, these are compatible. Although the emphasis on social aspects is obvious it is only developing the individual skills in the context of the needs of society. A society --a world society-- would definitely be a better society when individuals can lift themselves up from poverty, disease and ignorance.

There have been different forms and trends in the education of adults, which should be reviewed here as they have shown marked results and given a certain shape to adult education of today. A number of remarkable phenomena stand out in the development of adult education towards a national purpose. The Folk High School movement of Denmark, inspired by Bishop N.S.F. Grundtvig in 1844, was one of these. They provided out-of-school or post-school educational opportunity for both the youth and adults, giving courses in farming techniques, agricultural economy, art, history, language and music. These courses were organised at residential centres in winters and in other short-term sessions. Since then this system of residential adult education became quite popular with Germany and Scandinavian countries. The impact of Folk High School has been felt in many European countries and in the other parts of the world.

In the U.S.A., in 1878, a programme of adult education on a national scale came into being, the Chautauaqua Literary and Scientific Circle. Recalling much of the pioneering work of Josiah Holbrook, it was a four year programme of home reading in history and literature carried on in connection with local reading circles. Secondly, the farmers' institute movement, sponsored by the state boards of agriculture, had begun in Massachusetts as early as 1839, and by 1880 it was established in 26 states. Added momentum was given to the extension of agricultural education in 1887 with the passing of the Hatch Act, which provided for a system of agricultural experiment stations in connection with the land-grant colleges.

In England there was the development of University Extension Lectures by the Universities of Cambridge, London and Oxford at selected centres. These lectures provided study courses in the humanities for the working class who demanded opportunities for liberal studies over technical education they had, before 1860, in the Technical Institutes. The Extension Lectures movement culminated in the formation of the Workers' Educational Association (WEA) in 1903 by Albert Mansbridge. The WEA as an 'Association for Promoting the Higher Education of Working-class People' was able to provide social and political education for work-people who were then educationally underprivileged. By 1920, the WEA became strong enough to support radical politicians for the British Labour Party and militant leaders for the Trade Union Movement.

---

[4] Keweloh and Hagan.op.cit., p. 4.

There was the Antigosh Movement of the 1930s in Nova Scotia, Canada, inspired by Dr. J.J. Tompkins to revive the spirits of the fishermen of the maritime region of Canada. This fishing community was totally dejected due to the economic depression of the thirties. The programme for these poor fishermen included adult education and lecture courses on Christian principles of social justice. It was a cooperative effort which underlined the responsibility of education at a time of crisis. The movement had showed definite results, it brought both, social awareness (conscientization) and economic upliftment with better living conditions.

During the Second World War adult education had been used to indoctrinate large number of people in favour of an ideology, i.e. Nazism, as earlier it was used for Christianization or Americanization. Another phase appearing at this time, which gave a boost to adult education, was the success of short term crash courses given in war time to supply man power in Great Britain, North America and many European countries. It was also believed[5] that adult education had also been misused for maintaing, supporting, and justifying colonial oppression[6]. After the Wars adult education was aimed at enlightening the masses in favour of democratic ideas, to make them aware of their own power, the power of self-reliance, the power of moblizing their intellectual and manpower resources. Thus a strong 'civic education dimension' was introduced in adult education, which was replaced by a political dimension later. In between these two stages there was a period in which emphasis was on the organization and methodology of educating adults. All the attempts were centered on how best to organise adult education, how to integrate it into regional, multi-national and even international systems and more attention was paid to methods – how to motivate and teach adults.

---

[5] See Martin, Carnoy, Education as Cultural Imperialism, New York, David McKay Co. Inc., 1974 and Walter Rodney, How Europe Underdeveloped Africa, London Bogle, L'Ouverture Pub., 1972.

[6] Colonial rulers were selective in providing educational opportunities to those few who could contribute efficiently in maintaining their power. Education was used to inculcate values of subservience and credulity. A few, however, were given post-elementary education to man positions in the modern sector necessary for the existence of the bureaucracy which in turn was regarded as important for maintaining the domination and economic exploitation, and to provide "cushion" between the regime and the masses.

The political dimension of adult education became important with the the revolutionary ideas of Paulo Freire, Ivan Illich and others. Freire tried to make the masses conscious of their own problems and to make this "conscientization" a means of further action and liberation. Illich wanted complete abolishment of orthodox formal education system which he thought was a tool to regenerate the old existing structure of society. He wanted to replace them by self-motivated learning voluntarily accepted by both the teacher and the taught. He was aiming to bridge the gap between the formal and non-formal education systems and to integrate political and social awareness with the education of adults and children.

UNESCO's World Conference in Tokyo again referred to the above mentioned issues. It worked for the development of adult education, focussed on the needs of underprivileged masses of the Third World mainly, believed in the need of abolishing the system which is based on inequalities, and proclaimed the potency of adult education as a means of development. The Tokyo Conference attempted to classify the contents of adult education in respect of the whole gamut of human needs that it may be called upon to justify. These needs are as follows:

1. Remedial Education: Fundamental and Literacy Education,
2. Education for vocational, technical and professional competence,
3. Education for health, welfare and family living,
4. Education for civic, political, and community competence,
5. Education for self-fulfilment,

The definition of adult education in the Recommendation adopted by the UNESCO General Conference in Nairobi, in 1976, appears as follows:

> the entire body of organized educational processes, whatever the content, level and method, whether formal or otherwise, whether they prolong or replace initial education in schools, colleges and universities as well as in apprenticeship, whereby persons regarded as adult by society to which they belong develop their abilities, enrich their knowledge, improve their technical or professional qualifications or turn them in a new direction and bring about changes in their attitudes or behaviour in the two fold perspective of full personal development and participation in balanced and independent social,

economic and cultural development.[7]

1.1 STATEMENT OF GENERAL PROBLEM

The problem of development, for both developed and developing countries, is undoubtedly one of the most important and urgent issues confronting humanity. Today mankind has realized the dangers confronting it. One such danger is the growing inequalities between an affluent minority and poverty-stricken majority; the serious imbalances between so-called developed countries and developing countries are a sign of flagrant injustice and considered by some to be a source of constant threat to world peace. Apart from the inequality of material resources and affluence there is another aspect of inequality and that is between the educated and the uneducated. In October 1963, Mr. Rene Maheu, Director-General of UNESCO, in presenting to United Nations a report on co-operation for the eradication of illiteracy, pointed out that illiteracy of the masses constituted not only denial of a fundamental right to education but is a threat to world peace[8].

The Third World today is facing a series of decisive challenges, particularly the struggle against poverty, backwardness, political division, social and cultural contradictions, ideological and sectarian differences, the exploitation of men by men and the strengthening of efforts for men's freedom and dignity. These countries are passing through an important phase in contemporary history and great efforts are being made to achieve overall development. But in the process of this development the participation of all adults is difficult because of past constraints, and the oppressed position of the masses, ineffective formal education system, mass illiteracy and the lack of adequate skilled manpower.

---

[7] UNESCO, Recommendation on the Development of Adult Education, 1976, Ottawa:UNESCO Canadian Commission, p. 1.

[8] He said, "Who does not see the permanent threat to peace, to social peace in the first place but also to international peace, to the peace of the world, implicit in a fast-increasing inequality which daily widens the gap between those who enjoy the benefits of education and participate in the advances of science and those who deprived of education, can only marvel at science without understanding it. This gap separates men who are making history, who are piercing the secrets of outer space for the benefit of mankind, from men who must endure history and remained confined within the limited horizons of their ancestral customs. Let us beware of the peril, for there is nothing so threatening to security as this inequality, which becomes greater and deeper with every passing day."

General education in these underdeveloped countries was monopolised by a privileged few, for their own self interest and so was adult education. It had adapted itself very well to the conditions of inequality rather than combating it. It is possible to see the 'luxury forms' of adult education in the developing countries as the continuation of the planners' whims. In the name of adult education seminars of elite groups are held, research conducted in the safe setting of universities. The real provision of education for the deprived adults is considered to be a superior benevolent act by the providers. Many governments in the developing countries spend only 3.5% of their national income on adult education while the major portion of the national income 35% goes to formal education. Moreover, adult education at present is geared to raising the levels of each "class", separate and fairly distinct, rather than to breaking the barriers between the educational "classes". There may be a few exceptions, but it is generally agreed that adult education tends to attract those who already have a substantial education behind them. To overcome the situation UNESCO called for adult education for the underprivileged, 'the forgotten people'. The final report of the Tokyo Conference states,

> The widening gap between nations, groups and individuals constitutes the great moral challenge of our times. To close the gap is more than a question of social justice. In an era of evergrowing interdependence between countries and of increasing human wants, it is an economic imperative and precondition of world peace.
>
> This inequality is due to the unequal distribution of knowledge. But it cannot be solved simply by enlarging existing educational facilities. Experience shows that the provision of more education in most communities tends to favour most of already well-educated; and educationally underprivileged have yet to claim their rights. Adult education is no exception of the rule, for those adults who most need education have been largely neglected---they are forgotten people.[9]

In the absence of conscious and deliberate social action, inequalities will not diminish but, on the contrary, will increase. The apparent failure of the struggle for education of the masses was largely due to the failure to recognise that development which was not based on people's interests and people's participation was not likely to be effective. Likewise adult education must be based on the needs of the people rather than on the policies of the politicians, and in the whole education system adult education should be like an educational ladder with no step missing.

---

[9] UNESCO: Third International Conference on Adult Education (Tokyo), Final Report, Paris, UNESCO, p 19.

Adult education can contribute to development provided it does not become part of an obsolete education system; it should be a part of flexible and broadly based new systems if it is to contribute to the development process. International organizations, like UNESCO, can play an increasingly important part in the development of such education systems because it is through these organizations that innovative thinking can be crystallized and rapidly disseminated. These organizations are great catalysts of thought, research, and development in the service of all nations. The present study is limited to a consideration of the role of UNESCO, and the use of adult education as a means of development.

1.2 THEORETICAL JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

Development is very often viewed as a state that has already been attained. When one speaks of the stage of 'developed' countries one implies a measurable and material stage of growth reached by those societies. This view of development has an economic bias. Economic efficiency is an important aspect of development because it creates innovation, organization, increased productivity and can provide good material life. But, development is much more than mere growth in GNP. Man is the final purpose of development; the individual in the enjoyment of all his fundamental rights. It is the welfare of the man in the full sense of the word; it is the quality of life. Development is a comprehensive endeavour, comprising not only economic, but social, political, and cultural aspects of each society. Development is essentially a process whose aim is man and whose instrument is man. In September, 1969 UNESCO's Executive Board addressed a communication through the Director-General to the Intergovernmental Preparatory Committee of the United Nations in the following terms,

> Development is meaningful only if man, who is both its instrument and beneficiary, is also its justification and its end. It must be integrated and harmonized: in other words it must permit the full development of the human being on the spiritual, moral and material level, thus ensuring the rights of man in society, through respect for the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

Conceived as such, development becomes a process and an objective rather than an attained state. Development is a global process which touches the highly industrialized nations as much as the developing ones. All nations are in some stage of development, although the course of development is not unidirectional, due to the vast range of aspirations, and constraints among the various nations. UNESCO is not involved in mere channelling of resources so that the 'have-nots' countries share in technical progress with the 'haves'. Development is the expression of a 'common will to meet the needs and opportunities of tomorrow's techniques and tools'. So most of the developmental programmes of UNESCO and aid are aimed at providing countries with the means to shape their own future and finally to step out and meet it.'[10]

But, for some countries shaping their own future is a far fetched dream. Today, the problematic Third World situation is tied up with things like recent experience of colonization, an ongoing experience of economic exploitation by powerful capitalist economies, loss of cultural identity, a groping for national identity through cultural renewal and creative intellectual development, a search for a way to give practical reality to political independence. This task is for adults who can make a conscious transition from dependency to self reliance, and their education becomes the means to draw positive results. It is in this context that adult education, at all the levels of operation in the developing countries finds form and purpose[11].

The subject of development always leads to the subject of education. There is a positive relationship between the two. The right to knowledge is one of the fundamental rights. The value of education in helping the individual to enrich his cultural experience and his possibilities of personal growth should not be underestimated. But besides such intrinsic values education has important instrumental values in relation to development. If there is any lever which can accelerate social and economic development, it is education. As development is the movement of society by means of practical knowledge, constructive efficiency, creative intellectual qualifications to elevate society's standard of living, improving quality of life and increasing the effectiveness of civilization, this must be attained through education. Although the returns cannot be measured with precision, investment in human resources is undoubtedly considered a prime factor contributing to economic and social growth. As Rene Maheu observed,

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[10] Looking at UNESCO, UNESCO, Paris, 1973, p.34

[11] Rex Nettleford, The Nature and Scope of University Adult Education and National Development: a question of definitions? The Commonwealth Foundation Occasional Paper No. XV, 1972, p.108

> Experts in economics and finance once looked upon problems of economic development only from the view point of the development of material resources without considering human resources. The day is long gone. Today it is more and more clear that development depends to a large extent---and even to a primordial extent---upon a rational use of human resources.

Today economists even think that 'human resources constitute the ultimate basis for the wealth of nations...'[12].

The underdeveloped countries in the first half of this century, after getting political independence had no time to wait for the process of development to take its normal slow course. Rather, efforts had to be initiated and organised in order to serve a more dynamic development. One important line of activity was to set education in motion in such a way that the road to development, to human well-being and welfare can be shortened. The formal education system was considered the principal institutional mechanism to develop those skills and foster such knowledge which could bring in development in a short period[13]. Most Third World countries were led to believe that rapid 'quantitative' expansion of the formal institutions held the key for rapid development. But the euphoria of this expansion gave way to doubts and suspicion. Even after expanding enrollments and the expenditure of billions of dollars the plight of average citizen in the underdeveloped countries seemed little improved. There was doubt creeping in that something was wrong with the aims of formal education. Traditional school systems were criticized for reproducing the social structure and perpetuate social inequality, of being incapable of bringing in any social change, for being expensive to run, they were authoritarian and conservative, and these institutions failed to meet the actual needs of society. Under such circumstances there was a need for a special kind of education, which was designed to help people to overcome isolation, to liberate attitude and provide skills which people need to handle their affairs in the modern world.

An adult education programme is an important element in the strategy of development, especially in the underdeveloped countries where deficiencies exist in the education system itself. The overall planning of education is so deficient that it creates an unbalanced situation where there is surplus of university graduates of uneven quality and of unskilled labour but there is shortage of technicians. Such education, being irrelevant to development, hampers it by producing semi-educated school leavers who despise manual labour and are not good enough for other jobs. There is a need to come out of this narrow shell of selective area of formal education. In most of the developing countries, a large proprtion of the population has either never been to school or has been to school for very insufficient time to achieve a beneficial result. Thus, if formal education system fails to educate people in desired way there is a need for out-of-school and after school education to provide suitable education.

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[12] F.H. Harbinson, Human Resources as the Wealth of Nations, London: Oxford University Press, 1973, p.3.

[13] Throughout the world education was accepted as a human right during the fifties and there was an unlimited optimism regarding the individual and social value of formal schooling.

> It was well realised that in the countries where school component of education system is not adequately developed and where it cannot meet alone the urgent need for generalised basic education in the near future because of the heavy financial burden involved, adult education can make an effective contribution by responding directly to the practical needs of economic, social, and cultural development, since it is aimed primarily at the economically active sector of the population[14]

The spread of public awareness among the masses has a vital part to play in national development and only through education of the masses can democracy be built and safeguarded. It can be done by inculcating a sense of national identity and social cohesion. Here, adult education assumes an important role, as it provides a varied and extensive network of educational activities to buttress and support the process of national development. Many countries, especially in the Third World, have felt the need to enlarge and intensify the functions of adult education. In pursuance of national goals one of the functions of adult education is occupational training. All countries now realize that economic prosperity and stability depend upon adequate supply of man power. In industrialized countries, three factors namely, the ever increasing volume of knowledge and the greater rapidity with which it becomes obsolete, accelerated technological evolution and changes of economic kind, make vocational refresher training necessary. In less industrialized countries the impact of technological change on the industrial sector is not different but rural development has become the first priority.

J.K. Nyerere wrote,

> To be realistic, therefore, we must stop dreaming of developing Tanzania through the establishment of large, modern industries. For such things we have neither the money nor the skilled man power required to make them efficient and economical. We would even be making a mistake if we think in

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[14] Medium Term Plan (1977-1982), 19C/4 Approved, Objectives 5.6, p. 156. UNESCO, Paris, 1977.

> terms of covering Tanzania with mechanical farms, using tractors and combine harvesters....Our future lies in the development of our rural areas.[15]

Governments are not only concerned with increasing agricultural yields but also with arresting migration from country to cities, which is creating the problem of urbanization and unemployment of unskilled labourers. Adult education is one of the essential elements of any integrated rural development policy as it is the main avenue whereby, in the short term, the community may achieve the technical progress which is vital to the improvement of its standard of living and organise itself for participation in national economic and social life.

Adult education can be an efficient investment in human capital. Investing in human capital means not just waiting for the next generation to enter into working life but increasing the skills of adult and active population now and here. As faith in formal schooling diminishes, expectations that school leavers can have working skills to face the hard and competitive life, also diminish. Educating adults is now considered to be more potent factor in accelerating economic development.

Adult education can play an important role in relation to educational innovation, to the benefit of the educational system as a whole. It is less bound by traditions or the constraints imposed by institutions, curricula and examinations than other elements in the system. Adult education can be a testing ground for the formulation and development of innovative approaches capable of being extended to other types of educational action.

Adult education covers the whole range of skills and knowledge which contribute to the harmonious development of the personality, to the roles of individuals in the society, and to the knowledge and attitudes that are required by such roles[16].

By educating parents and parents-to-be, adult education creates a favourable environment for the education of children and is seen, then, to be complementary to it. Adult education is thus an important factor in the general promotion of education itself.

Adult education also helps in fostering social justice and in enabling societies to adjust to the effects of socual change. In this complex world of rapid change no society can be immune from the consequences of technological development. Societies have to find a way of dealing with constant emergencies and challenges without dislocating their traditional values and social patterns. This is possible through "resocializing" adults. The education of adult would help the process of recognizing 'new relationships'. As H.L. Miller pointed out:

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[15] Ujamaa: Essays on Socialism Dar es Salam, 1968, p 96-7.

[16] This knowledge includes the acquisition of practical knowledge in areas such as health, nutrition, upbringing of children, consumer affairs, etc, literacy and numeracy, individual fulfilment in culture, enhancement of occupational efficiency by means of initial and refresher training, and the understanding of the major problems faced by national and international community

> ....The adult educator faces the task of resocializing the adult. In a static traditional society adult education is redundant; the adult has no need either to change the ways in which he plays important social roles, or to acquire new skills.[17]

The principle aim of adult education is not just imparting information but to help produce behavioural and attitudinal changes[18]. Another function ascribed to adult education is that of fostering social justice. That means every effort should be made to guarantee equal access to education to all citizens. This conviction has got roots since 1960. It was felt by educators and planners that in order to remove persistent social inequalities the introduction of universal primary education is not sufficient. Education is not beneficial for those children who went to school in deprived areas and who lived in a not so congenial and conducive atmosphere. It is the responsibility of the society to educate adults who went to school in such an area or did not go to school at all, to compensate for the inadequacy of their early education.

Education of adults, thus, linked with concrete developmental goals cannot be regarded as prolongation of or substitute for studies at schools or universities. It is concerned with the systematic development of adults. Both adult education and development are to be regarded as approaches toward the liberation of people from the constraints of poverty, ignorance, unemployment, poor health, run away technology, all of which can prevent them from realizing their human potential. It has to bring an awareness among adults to understand the necessity of combatting the tragic injustices and inequalities which are dividing the peoples and countries. When a country is trying to develop rapidly, it requires the maximum contribution of each citizen. But no one can contribute to development unless one knows what one is driving at---unless one is convinced that improvement is really ahead and one has a share in it. Education can help one to understand the changes that are taking place and can make one aware of one's own potentialities then only one can attempt to contribute to the process of development. The relation of adult education to development is a recurring theme in the plans of developing countries. The theme was well expressed in a speech by President Julius Nyerere of Tanzania,

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[17] H.L. Miller, Adult Education Objectives, in Jensen, G., Liveright, A.A., and Hallenbeck, W. (eds.)Adult Education: Outlines of an emerging field of University Study, Washington, 1965.

[18] Like Freire puts it in the Adult literacy Process as Cultural Action for Freedom, Harvard Educational review, vol.40, No. 2, 1970, p 212.--"The Literacy process, as cultural action for freedom is an act of knowing in which the learner assumes the role of knowing subject in dialogue with the educator."

> First, we must educate adults. Our children will not have an impact on our economic development for five, ten or twenty years. The attitudes of the adults..... on the other hand, have an impact now. The people must understand the plans for the development of this country; they must be able to participate in the changes which are necessary. Only if they are willing and able to do this will the plan succeed.[19]

1.2.1 NEED FOR THE STUDY

Reports and books have been published by UNESCO at regular intervals, about its philosophy, policies, performances, and programmes regarding adult education. There is a need for research dealing specifically with UNESCO's changing role in the field of adult education to meet the needs of developing countries. Some studies have been made on UNESCO and adult education in developing countries, but no major attempt has been made to focus on its role in the development of adult education in relation to political, social and economic factors of the Third World countries. Most of the studies are largely chronological in approach and lack the focus necessary to show the relationship of adult education specifically with various developmental policies of UNESCO, and how they affect the development of the Third World countries. The present study attempts to provide such focus. It also brings the story of UNESCO, adult education and development up-to-date, that is, upto 1979.

Secondly, the study tries to meet the demands of the time. All the recent reports---like the Brandt Commission's North-South, Club of Rome's No Limits to Learning or World Development Report of 1980 on human resources, plead for development on humanitarian, not only economic, grounds. All development programmes should set out with the prime goal of benefitting human beings, improving their lives within their communities, should be centred on man, and should be based on respect for the individual's worth, intelligence and competence. This is the purpose of adult education for the oppressed masses of the third world countries, too---'liberation of man from the restraints of ignorance and dependency---to increase men's control over themselves, their own lives, and the environment in which they live.' It is important to determine how much an international organization like UNESCO has contributed in this development process of these developing countries through adult education. A study of the policies of an international organization like UNESCO in the area of Adult Education would be a useful contribution to the field of international education.

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[19] Mary Burnet, ABC of Literacy, UNESCO, 1972, p 16

1.2.2 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The study is based on the assumption that UNESCO, since its inception has made a valuable contribution in the field of adult education and towards the development of the Third World countries. But since its inception it has gone through many changes, both in philosophy and policy. It is also assumed that in the course of these changes, certain functions were performed and certain programmes of adult education were introduced. Both aims and functions have been subjected to modifications in response to changing needs and conditions in the third world countries. These changes during the period of 1949-1979 are largely due to several factors, such as the development priorities defined by the newly emergent nations in the last few decades, accumulating forces of technological and scientific changes in modern society, persistent poverty, illiteracy and underdevelopment of the Third World countries, and the increasing gulf between rich and poor nations. It is the purpose of the study to trace its progress in the field of adult education and to identify the factors which have influenced these changes.

The main purpose of the study is therefore twofold; first, to examine one international agency, UNESCO, which sought to use adult education to help upgrade the living condition of the peoples in the economically underdeveloped countries; to examine the role UNESCO has played in acting as an agent of change during the period of 1949-1979. This will include an appraisal of the theoretical and methodological aspects of policy making of education for adults by UNESCO, and an analysis of UNESCO's role in collaborating with the governments of these developing countries in furthering the ends of development. Second, the study will examine the changes which have taken place in the policies and functions of UNESCO during this given period. This requires an examination of the factors underlying those changes and an evaluation of the changes in terms of prospects, possibilities and problems of future educational needs and development of underdeveloped countries.

A related purpose of the study is to assess the compatibility of the outcome of the policies of UNESCO with the needs of the developing countries.

1.2.3 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Chronologically, the study will concentrate on the period of thirty years, that is from 1949-1979. The year 1949 marks the year when the first international conference on adult education, at Elsinore (Denmark), was organised by UNESCO. The conclusion of this work is 1979, which is very recent and provides a boundary to complete three decades of UNESCO's active role in the field of adult education. These thirty years, between 1949-1979 also encompass a time of rapid changes both in the socio-economic and socio-political scenes of many countries. During this period two other international conferences were convened by UNESCO in Montreal and Tokyo, and this period also encompasses two decades of 'development' 1960-70 and 1970-80.

Although UNESCO is concerned both with developing and and developed countries this study will cover the developing countries only. As it is impossible within the scope of this thesis to discuss all the developing Member States, the study will use assesments and reports as examples and will derive generalisations from such analysis.

1.2.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The limitations of this study are obvious. For one thing, it is difficult to study the changing views and policies of a such a large organization as UNESCO on a broad topic like adult education, which covers a vast area of multiple activities. Secondly, the thesis covers the period until 1979 and to grasp the important features at a given moment without much time gap leaves little time for reflection and there is always the risk of being proved wrong or being overtaken by events. UNESCO, itself, was born after the

Second World War and had little time to stablize its policies in this rapidly changing period.

Further, anyone who tries to get an overall view of education throughout the world or through a large part of the world has a natural tendency to generalise, to perceive similarities rather than differences, to see common problems rather than special preoccupations. However, while being fully aware of the danger of over simplification, one must admit that a very large number of questions arise in a similar way in socio-cultural contexts which are otherwise very different. There are, obviously, certain major problems which apply only to a specific category, especially, the developing countries. Arising from the same causes the problems can be similar too. This is the reason many countries have fallen in the categorization of 'third world countries' in the present study.

Other limitations are sometimes imposed by the necessary and rather limited choice of sources of information.

1.3 REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

One can find published material on adult education or on the activities of UNESCO itself in this field. UNESCO's publishing unit has published several relevant books on the subject. In the beginning of this review the declaration and documents of UNESCO on adult education will be studied. The increasing congruence between the goal of adult education and the goals of development that become clear at the 1972 Tokyo World Conference has gathered intensity and momentum in only a few short years. That is demonstrated in the growing body of international documents, declarations and statements that cross-reference with recommendations of major world conferences. There is an acknowledgement in these documents of the urgency to develop concepts, principles, and commitment, both nationally and internationally, for new structural arrangements that will give the best possible chance for concerted public action to improve the actual conditions of actual people. For example, the inequality of educational opportunity and the need for a "regenerated" concept of education to serve and liberate man is called for by UNESCO, by the Faure Report, the Tokyo Conference, and the

Persepolis Declaration. An emphasis on structures, on arrangements, on management-for-action underlines documents and declarations as it does the statements from international conferences. This emphasis is important for adult education, which has suffered from the lack of consistent and accepted principles, concepts, frameworks or action and research, and moreso from the lack of the infrastructure without which no progress is likely. Development strategies for adult education are being put forward now in major policy statements. One is 'Instrument on the Development of Adult Education'[20] which gives a central place for adult education in national policies. In the same way, the delineation of "most favourable" structure in the Persepolis Declaration, the recommendation of the Experimental World literacy programme, the statements on the cultural and social components of education and of development, all serve to underscore convergent points of integrated action. The 'Instrument' embodies no legal authority for Member States but it provides the powers of moral pursuasion and assent of the principles of international regulation. For the first time, in the 1970s adult education is placed in central context in the education family and in national policies. The Instrument represents a convergence of views that, over several decades, have been debated, refined and agreed to by the international community about the central place of adult education in the national goals of a country respecting provision for lifelong learning and right of people to such provision. This international regulation deals with the subject on a general basis that Member States can implement recommendations according to their own philosophy and goals.

Another book which deserves attention is New Trends in Adult Education from Elsinore to Montreal by A.S.M.Hely.[21] This book was written in 1962, after the second International Conference on Adult Education in Montreal in 1960. It is an informative historical study of the subject. It covers those eleven years of history, bracketed by two International conferences on adult education, when the need for adult education had accelerated to cope with the fast changing society. The book studies what was there after the Elsinore (1949) conference and what was the atmosphere of the 1960 conference---the discussions which took place there, the decisions reached and the recommendations made. Delegates to the 1949 conference were actually conscious of many problems facing the industrial West but they were only dimly aware of the problems of the developing countries. The non-Western parts of the world were simply ignored. This is understandable, because in 1949 the world situation was still-too fluid for the future shape of things to be seen plainly. Many new nations had emerged and gained independence, but this independence was followed by transitional disorders and difficulties. Though they were ignored in the 1949 conference, Hely does not forget to discuss the problems of the Third World---poverty, population, economic development, industrialization, unemployment and education---in a few pages. Some interesting trends developed in the Montreal conference. There was a change in emphasis; adult education was no longer seen as a 'continuation' after formal school but as part of a 'continous' educational process. Acceleration in the rate of change had given an added sense of urgency to the need for the public to think of education as a lifelong process.

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[20] Instrument on the Development of Adult Education, UNESCO, Paris, 1976.
[21] A.S.M.Hely, New Trends in Adult Education. From Elsinore to Montreal, UNESCO, Paris, 1962.

With his experience and knowledge Mr.Hely was admirably equipped to undertake the writing of this important book. The book has proved a valuable basis for study and planning. Hely has organised his material, but he had drawn certain boundaries for himself. He left out the issue of the development of the Third World countries through adult education, and concerned himself with the changing philosophy and policy of UNESCO in the period of 1949-60. But this book was merely a historical account of the movement of adult education between 1949 to 1972 and did not have much to say on the role of UNESCO in adult education.

Two other important publications are Prosser's Adult Education for Developing Countries[22], and Edwin Coles' Adult Education in the Developing Countries[23]. Both are studies of adult education systems within the Third World and even though they do not address UNESCO's role at all they are important for the present study. Roy Prosser, who has himself taught adults in East Africa for nearly fifteen years, argues that because of the stage of development that they have achieved, the Third World countries can rarely adapt adult education programme and strategies which have been intended for developed Western World. This book is primarily based on his experience of Africa but can be useful in the other developing countries with same problems. Prosser has treated the subject simply, objectively and frankly with little attempt to theorise. The message of Prosser's book is that all basic development must be associated with learning, and especially in the developing countries where the need for providing opportunities for all gives adult learning a high priority. Prosser thinks that the general provision of adult education can never be adequate in developing countries. Prosser, in a preliminary survey, has tried to bring out the relationship between adult education and national development. He attempts to deal with the problem of organization and administration of adult education and with means and methods of adult instruction. The book, though brief, is comprehensive in the coverage of the subject matter. The approach is not comparative but is, rather, an 'inside-one-country-only' approach but there is some application of the ideas to similar situations in other developing countries. He does not attach much importance to the role which international organization, like UNESCO can play in these efforts. According to his philosophy, each country is capable of taking care of its own needs of adult education through its governmental and non-governmental associations.

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[22] Roy Prosser, Adult Education for Developing Countries, Nairobi East African Publishing House, 1969.

[23] Edwin T. Coles, Adult Education in the Developing Countries, London: Pergamon Press, 1969,

The book by Coles, is an attempt to describe the why, what and how of adult education in developing countries. Adult education has been recognised in developing countries as a part of national development. In addition to the teaching vocational skills, adult education, according to Coles, must develop those qualities of 'mind and spirit expected of adult citizens'. In adult education there must be balance between flexibility and planning. The very roots of societies---especially the developing one---are being disturbed by change. To appreciate and adjust to this change men and women need special training. Coles discusses the need of adult education in the developing countries and points out how colonial administrators have restricted the growth of adult education which could develop people's consciousness and reasoning power, which were dangerous for ruling colonizers. The author had proposed a co-ordinated plan of study devised for an adult population of a developing country.

John Lowe's The Education of Adults: A World Perspective (1975)[24] is an important book in adult education and falls into the category of basic adult education literature, along with Lindeman's 'The Meaning of Adult Education', Knowles' 'Modern

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[24] John Lowe, The Education of Adults. A World Perspective. The UNESCO Press, OISE, Toronto, 1975.

Practice' and Houle's 'The Design of Education', or Verner and Booth's 'Adult Education'. These books do not necessarily give something new or contain blazing new insights, but they provide a synthesis. They have a point of view about adult education which has a broad appeal, and are useful to a wide range of people. They cover a range of topics which are included in what is often termed the "foundations" of the field. This includes questions concerning the scope and function of adult education, organizing principles, the structure of the field and its relationship to other parts of education and other social services, the broad implications of methods and techniques, and aspects of staffing and administration and funding. Lowe's book was commissioned by UNESCO following the Tokyo conference on adult education in 1972 and the subsequent meeting of the general conference of the body. Lowe has clearly shown one new fact which become evident at the Tokyo meeting: that now there is world community in adult education which shares many of the same concerns and uses a common language based on a common body of knowledge and experience. Lowe's book is concerned in part with providing a worldwide perspective on the development of adult education and he has taken examples from Yugoslavia, Latin America and Western Europe, which are also relevant to North American practice. Lowe has had broad experience in both the developing and the industrialized worlds. This book is not just an 'international' book with synthesis of materials from different countries. It serve the functions of UNESCO in promoting international communication and understanding.

Another important book in this field is Adult Learning: A Design for Action, edited by Budd L. Hall and J.R. Kidd.[25] This book included some papers contributed and used by the participants to the international conference on adult education and development, held in Dar-es-Salaam, June 1976. This conference provided a forum for many nations, organizations and individuals to identify crucial development issues and to design a comprehensive outline of future policy. President Nyerere delivered a keynote address on the theme of the conference, Adult Education and Development, he stressed

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[25] Budd L. Hall and J.R. Kidd (eds.), Adult Learning: A Design for Action, London, Pergamon Press, 1978.

> So, if adult education has to contribute in development, it must be a part of life---integrated with life and inseparable from it. It is not something which can be put into a box and taken out for certain periods of the day or week – or certain periods of a life. And it cannot be imposed: every learner is ultimately a volunteer because, however much teaching is given, only he can learn.
>
> Further, adult education is not something which can deal with just 'agriculture', or 'health', or 'literacy', or 'mechanical skill', etc. All these separate branches of education are related to the total life of a man is living and to the man he is and will become. Learning how best to grow soya beans is of little use to a man if it is not combined with learning about nutrition and, or, the existence of a market for the beans.
>
> This means, therefore, that adult education will promote changes in man and in society. And it means that adult education should promote change, at the same time as it assists men to control both the change which they induce and that which is forced upon them by the decision of other men or the cataclysms of nature. Further, it means that adult education encompasses the whole of life, and must build upon what already exists.[26]

The aim of the conference was to adopt a plan for action for adult education in the Second Development decade. It was noted in the conference that illiteracy, ignorance and poverty were three formidable giants which most governnments were striving, through development plans and programmes, to combat, and that adult education was indeed an essential factor in promoting development processes. It was conceded that the basic fact that all development planning including educational planning, was influenced by political factors. The major issue of all the papers in the book is how to use adult education for integrated development planning and how the participation of all peoples can be achieved in development decisions. This book has come out as an important document on the role of adult education in development with special emphasis on increasing the interaction between those concerned with planning in the widest sense.

Nevertheless, it was concluded in the book/conference that adult education could very decisively raise a people out of ignorance and apathy, once there was a commitment by a government and its people. Further, necessary structure and resources should be provided to carry out purposeful adult education programmes with the aim of helping people to improve and enrich their lives at grass-root level and contribute in national development.

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[26] Ibid, p.3.

1.4 METHOD OF TREATMENT

The method employed in this thesis is mainly historical. The period selected in this study is from 1949–1979. The study is divided in three parts. The first part is about UNESCO and its policies, which constitutes the general background for the study. The second part covers three main events---the three international conferences convened by UNESCO---in the development of adult education and subsequent activities. The period of thirty years, thus divided in three phases, is discussed in three separate chapters giving ten years to each phase. In the third part there will be a discussion, analysis and summary of UNESCO's actions and ideologies.

This study is also an exploratory one as it discusses the current position of UNESCO, in reference to its historical practices and its theoretical conceptualizations regarding adult education in the Third World countries. This study will provide a review of the activities, functions and policies of UNESCO, which will, however enhance the understanding of this era in the world history of development.

1.4.1 SOURCES OF DATA TO BE USED

In carrying out this study several different sources of material have been consulted. Primarily, this thesis is based on the review of related literature, reports and evaluations. Contemporary reports on UNESCO by other sources also provide an important source of information. A good deal of primary sources material on and by UNESCO was fortunately available.UNESCO regularly publishes occasional reports of different educational activities, conference reports, documents, recommendations, policy papers etc. Journals on adult education and on education are also published by UNESCO. A few unpublished papers and theses were also consulted.

CHAPTER II

THE BACKGROUND

2.1 HOW UNESCO CAME TO BE

The period after the end of the Second World War, in 1945, was one of human suffering and material destruction. It was a time of lost faith, uncertainty and hopelessness in some parts of the world. For others it was a time of rejoicing, happiness and hope for future.

In the first part of the twentieth century developments in industry, scientific knowledge, technology and media of communication made the world more accessible and provided a feeling of power and confidence to mankind. But this hope of development became vague and uncertain after two World Wars; the total destruction brought stagnation and a painful attempt at reconstruction. The whole picture was terrifying, showing how the primitive passions of man could destroy his veneer of civilization. The most tragic destruction was the loss of faith,

> The Wars had also undermined confidence in man's ability to control his own destiny through democratic procedures ..... the democracy was on the retreat. In country after country the 'individual man'of the nineteenth century was turning into the 'mass-man' of the twentieth century, and this man was surrendering his rights, and his responsibility to make decisions, to leaders often contemptous to democracy. For example, the faith that universal education would provide men with an intellectual discretion to guide all their judgements was beginning to fail. [27]

However, man's capacity of destruction is matched by his capacity to save himself. In this process, he undoubtedly builds a better world. When men are at war they dream of peace and after that they search for more permanent ways to preserve it. Never before were the world's peoples and leaders so anxious to preserve peace and bring back the lost faith in the mankind. They were aware that with one more war the whole of mankind would perish. World peace could be preserved only through two means---either to create the machinery to prevent war at the time of crisis or to bring into being a world society where such crisis is less likely to occur; a society of mutual respect, cooperation, brotherhood and peace. So it was stressed that to prevent the Third World War the foundations of peace must be laid in the society itself. The creation of the United Nations system was an attempt to bring hope and peace through intellectual understanding and cooperation after the second World War. Earlier it was the same hope which resulted in the formation of the 'League of Nations' in 1920 and was soon followed by the creation of the International Bureau of Education in the area of education; and later by the International Institute for Intellectual Cooperation[28]. The purpose was to promote peace not only at the political levels but also efforts were also to be made on higher and more permanent levels of culture and reflection. These two institutions can be called the forerunners of UNESCO[29].

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[27] A.S.M. Hely, op.cit., pp. 23-24

2.1.1 THE UNITED NATIONS AND UNESCO

The United Nations system states a faith in liberal democratic ideals which found its way in the provisions for social, economic and humanitarian cooperation written in the charter of the United Nations and the constitutions of its specialized agencies. It brings out the familiar faith in man, in truth and in the possibility of achieving a peaceful world through international understanding. Faith in man was stated in terms of dignity and and worth of the individual, and of the capacity of man for education, for freedom, and for cooperation. Human rights and fundamental freedom were the values which were respected and encouraged. With its specialized agencies this system tried to provide an institutionalized framework for all organized international cooperation. Today, the United Nations System consists of some thirty-five inter-governmental agencies each specializing in a particular economic, social or cultural field[30]. These agencies work for the development of human civilization, setting high ideals as their objectives and their approach to these objectives is universal. The problems in a particular field are considered from a world view and each solution is adapted to the better organization of the whole of mankind.

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[28] Later this Institute was incorporated into UNESCO at its inception.

[29] Though, immediate ancestor of UNESCO was a war-time Conference of Allied Ministers of Education (CAME), which had the aim of planning ahead for the reconstruction which would be needed after the war. CAME met in London in November 1942, when consequences of the war were yet unpredictable. The basic idea of the Conference was to establish intergovermental cultural cooperation, but before a year had passed the Conference had outgrown its first ideas of drafting cultural conventions and was moving towards setting up a truly international organization. British scholar Gilbert Murray headed a committee, which proposed for a permanent organization for education and better international understanding. The Conference had examined the proposals and set up an executive bureau to consider the long term project of a "United Nations Bureau of Education".

[30] In the beginning there were only fifteen such agencies.

UNESCO---the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization---was created in 1945. This agency of the United Nations was based on the assumption that the resources of education, science and culture would contribute to international peace and cooperation and would complement the works of United Nations.

The first conference for the establishment of UNESCO met in London, in 1945. The importance ascribed to the conference can be assessed by the presence, at the Conference of such world statesmen and scholars as: Prime Minister Clement Attlee of Great Britain and his Minister of Education Ellen Wilkinson; Leon Blum, the former Prime Minister of France; Hu Shih, the Chinese philosopher; and Archibald McLeish, the American poet and scholar. Also present at the conference were three men who were later appointed Director-Generals of UNESCO successively: Julian Huxley of Great Britain, Jaimes Torres Bodet of Mexico, and Luther Evans of the United States. At the time of this Conference, which led to the establishment of UNESCO, the expectations of members were quite high, the underlying current was one of hope as well as of faith. The idea that something could be done and that it would be accomplished without any doubt was reinforced. Laves and Thomson have observed in their book that,

> ..... The optimistic outlook of the London Conference of 1945 was the general expectation that the world was to be blessed by a prolonged period of peace---a positive peace and not merely the absence of war---which would provide opportunity to build securely a world community to serve as a foundation for the work of the United Nations. Much of the history of UNESCO is therefore the story of the efforts to realize the high hopes of its creators despite the fact that this fundamental assumption had proved to be illusory.[31]

But we must not forget that when this conference met the effects of the Second World War were very much evident. In developing a new international order the creators felt that intellectual life, improvement and expansion of educational systems, availability of more learning opportunities and the development of understanding among people would play an essential role in the organization of international cooperation. So, UNESCO was born at the London Conference partly in response to the ideological forces that sought to create world peace through international understanding.

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[31] Walter Laves and C.A. Thomson, UNESCO:Purpose,Progress,Prospects; Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1957., p.xx.

The delegates at the London Conference hoped that the creation of an international organization would help to meet various needs. The primary need at the time was the the need for educational and cultural reconstruction of the war devastated countries, as Poland, Greece, Japan and the Philippines. Another need mentioned in the Conference concerned the economically under-developed countries. Representative delegates from these countries pleaded for assistance to improve the economic and social condition of these countries. The Colombian representative declared that the new organization should aim to have "a world crusade against illiteracy." The Egyptian delegate observed that "no country today can afford to live next door to poverty or ignorance." [32]

Thus the task of UNESCO, as an international agency and as a specialized agency of the United Nations, was seen as pivotal to that of the entire United Nations system, and that was to contribute to peace and security by strengthening the educational, scientific and cultural resources. UNESCO's programmes were centered around three main objectives:

1. the advancement of knowledge by strengthening the educational, scientific and cultural resources of individual countries and of mankind as a whole;
2. the promotion of human welfare through a cooperative attack on major world problems;
3. and the development of international understanding by a variety of means both direct and indirect.

The Constitution:

These objectives were very clearly stated in the Constitution of UNESCO. The Article 1 clearly suggests multiple purposes, but the body of that Article comes out with a single purpose, that of contributing to "peace and security". The most eloquent embodiment of the ideology, which considered education capable of building a "new social order", was the UNESCO Constitution itself. It is stated in the preamble to the Constitution that

> Since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be constructed..... The wide diffusion of culture, and the education of humanity for justice and liberty and peace are indispensable to the dignity of man and constitute a sacred duty which all nations must fulfill in a spirit of mutual assistance and concern..... A peace based exclusively upon the political and economic arrangements of governments would not be a

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[32] Walter H.C. Laves and Charles.A. Thomson, op.cit., p.8

> peace which would secure the unanimous, lasting and sincere support of the peoples of the world.... the peace must therefore be founded, if it is not to fail, upon the intellectual solidarity of mankind.[33]

The text of Article 1 section 1 reads,

> The purpose of the organization is to contribute to peace and security by promoting collaboration among the nations through education, science and culture in order to further universal respect for justice, for the rule of law and for the human rights and the fundamental freedoms which are affirmed for the peoples of the world, without distinction of race, sex, language or religion, by the Charter of the United Nations.[34]

Section 2 then outlines how this purpose will be carried out. It states that there will be collaboration in the work of advancing the mutual knowledge and understanding of peoples, through all means of mass communication to promote the free flow of ideas by word and image. A fresh impulse should be given to popular education and to the spread of culture; by collaborating with Member States in the development of educational activities; by instituting collaboration among the nations to advance the ideal of equality of educational opportunity without regard race, sex or any distinction, economic or social; and by using best suited educational methods to prepare the children of the world for the responsibilities of the freedom. It was realised that to maintain, increase and diffuse knowledge the conservation and protection of the world's inheritance of books, works of art and monuments of history and science was necessary. It had been felt important to encourage cooperation among the nations in all branches of intellectual activity, including the international exchange of persons active in the fields of education, science and culture and exchange of publications, objects of artistic and scientific interest and other materials of information.

The Constitution adopted at 1945 Conference took effect a year later when Greece, as the twentieth state to do so, deposited the instrument of ratification in London. Thus, the Organisation began its official life on November 4, 1946. A preparatory commission with which the Secretariat had moved into the Hotel Majestic on the Avenue Kleber in Paris beacame UNESCO [35].

At the First Session of the General Conference of UNESCO[36]

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[33] Ibid.

[34] Ibid.

[35] Since 1958, the headquarters of the Organization has been in complex buildings on a site on the Place de Fontenoy.

[36] This session was attended by representatives of forty four governments, only thirty had the right to vote as full members. Nearly one-third of the thirty were West European and even among them were many absentees. There was no representation from many countries: out of twenty countries in Latin America, only eight were represented. The only

[36]. in 1946, it was noted that there should not be a demand for UNESCO's direct contribution to the maintanance of peace. This also meant that the directness of the relationship between the means and the end will vary from project to project, mostly depending upon the role which UNESCO plays. Archibald MacLeish, noted three roles which UNESCO might assume. First, it could function as a stimulating agency for other organizations; second, it could act as a service agency providing member states with information, bibliographies, liasion centres and communication. Finally it could function as an operating agency by undertaking specific projects. In each case MacLeish said, "The role of UNESCO would be different and the relation of the project to the objective of the support of peace would therefore vary."[37]

Hence, the immediate objective of UNESCO appeared as the advancement of knowledge, promotion of human welfare and development of international understanding. In practice this acceptance of a multiple purpose justified a wider range of activities than would have been possible if each activity were designed to make direct contribution towards 'peace' and security.

The Philosophy:

But, for carrying out its work efficiently, an organization like UNESCO needed not only a set of general aims or objectives for itself but also a working philosophy, some guiding principles. UNESCO had developed a working hypothesis concerning human existence and it aimed to indicate a definite line of approach to its problems.

Although UNESCO fully recognized the contributions made by many thinkers and by the world's great religions too, it could not base its outlook on one of the competing ideologies or theologies of the world. Neither could it espouse any special philosophy or one of the politico-economic doctrines competing in the world today to the exclusion of the others. Nor, with its stress on human dignity and the principles of democracy, could it accept that the State is a higher or more important end than the individual; nor accept any rigid class theory of society. UNESCO could not do so, partially because it would have been contrary to its Charter and mainly because it is impractical. This Organization had to work towards the ideal of a world society, not for one but for all and any such partisan step could bring in non-cooperation among Members, activate hostility of large and influential groups and might lead to the withdrawal of a number of nations.

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[36] (cont'd)voices from Asia were those of India, China and Philippines. There was no representation from Africa.
[37] Laves and Thomson. op.cit. pp 33-34.

As UNESCO's main concern was peace and security and human welfare and its main purpose was to serve mankind educationally, culturally and scientifically, it is not strange that its outlook was based on some form of humanism. Julian Huxley as Executive Secretary of the Preparatory Commission at the First Session of the General Conference, outlined a basic UNESCO phoilosophy which he hoped might serve as a general frame for the programme. He wrote a pamphlet entitled "UNESCO: Its purpose and its Philosophy" which was circulated as the personal statement of the Executive Secretary. He offered a philosophy which he called "world scientific humanism", and argued that this 'humanism' has to be 'world humanism';

> .....both in the sense of seeking to bring in all the peoples of the world, and all individuals within each people as equals in terms of human dignity, mutual respect, and educational opportunity.[38]

This humanism would be a scientific humanism too;

> .....in the sense that the application of science provides most of the material basis for human culture, and also that the practice and the understanding of science need to be integrated with that of human activities. It cannot, however, be materialistic, but must embrace the spiritual and mental as well as the material aspects of existence, and must attempt to do so on a truly monistic, unitary philosophic basis. [39]

Huxley felt that it is essential for UNESCO to adopt an evolutionary approach as opposed to a static or idle one to make its philosophy real and its humanism complete. He wrote;

> It not only shows us man's place in nature and his relations to the rest of the phenomenal universe, not only gives us a description of the various types of evolution and the various trends and directions within them, but allows us to distinguish desirable and undesirable trends, and to demonstrate the existence of progress in the cosmos. And finally it shows us man as now the sole trustee of further evolutionary progress, and gives us important guidance as to the courses he should avoid and those he should pursue if he is to achieve that progress.[40]

Thus the general philosophy of UNESCO could be termed as 'scientific world humanism, global in extent and evolutionary in background', according to Huxley.

But again many scholars have questioned whether an international organization like UNESCO needs a working philosophy at all and a few challenged Huxley's approach too.

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[38] Julian Huxley, UNESCO: Its Purpose and its Philosophy pp 7-8, Washington; Public Affairs Press, 1947.

[39] Ibid.

[40] Ibid.

Vladislav Ribnikar, the Yugoslav observer, argued that adoption of an international official philosophy would lead to "the enslavement of thought and of spirit of creation and would form an arbitrary obstacle to the spread of culture." He questioned that if UNESCO were true to its pledge of cultural diversity then could it reject "the scientific character of dialectical materialism" and declaimed its approach as "a kind of philosophic esperanto."[41]

At the Second Session of the General Conference in 1947, Jacques Maritain, the eminent French philosopher, again questioned the philosophical principles which were used as a guide to practical programmes selected by UNESCO. He argued that it was not possible to secure one agreement on any single thought, "since it implies intellectual agreement between men whose views of the world, of culture and even of knowledge are different and even opposed." He suggested that since, "the goal of UNESCO is a practical goal, agreement between minds can be reached spontaneously, not on the basis of common speculative ideas, but on common practical ideas." He felt that such ideas can guide action and their practical base is important for the fulfilment of the Constitution of UNESCO.[42]

No one has uttered the last word on the philosophy of UNESCO. Historically the underlying assumptions of the organization were those of Western democratic liberalism, and any attempt today to describe UNESCO would lead back to the ideas outlined in the Constitution, the ideas which were left unspecified and vague, purposely, to get wider and universal acceptance. So, if UNESCO has any philosophy it is one of "respect for diversity, a conscious pluralism". In this respect it can be said that this is the greatest contribution of UNESCO a "recognition of a pluralistic world and of the possibility of cooperation among peoples whose different approaches were accepted and respected." [43] UNESCO proceeded with the faith that education, information and communication will help international understanding, and that understanding will contribute to peace.

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[41] UNESCO,"General Conference, First Session, pp 38-41.
[42] UNESCO, "Proceedings", Document 2C/ 132, pp. 30-33.
[43] Laves and Thomson, op.cit., p 50.

2.1.2 COMMITMENT TO EDUCATION

Subsequently, the most powerful single idea that had spread in relation to education, since UNESCO's birth, was that the education is a right (according to Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Article 26). And this must be taken in conjunction with the general Article 2 which stated that all the rights are to be recognised '.....without distinction of any kind, such as race, color, sex, language, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status'. UNESCO had stood quite firmly for this right and has done a great deal to make the world familiar with its meaning. It has persistently emphasised the concept of 'non-discrimination' in education, 'an idea that has unassailable moral force behind it.'[44]. In 1960, the convention on this subject was adopted by the General Conference. Fifty seven Member States ratified it and decided to proscribe discrimination and to promote equality of opportunity and UNESCO as a result regularly has asked the Member States to examine this practice and report on it.

Very early with the establishment of UNESCO it was understood that the ignorance of our different ways is the great fostering and festering ground of suspicion and fear

> It has ceaselessly returned to the subject (of non-discrimination), insisting that whatever rights are realizable must be realized as much for people with dark skins as with light, as much for girls and women as for boys and men, as much for persons of one religion as for persons of another.[45]

Another hope of the founders of UNESCO regarding education was 'education for international understanding' The education system of the countries, though different in nature should be channellised towards international understanding and cooperation. It should be less nationalistically partisan and open to world view.

Howard Wilson described education, within UNESCO's purview, as a "basically significant field" addressing "the whole of the person through the whole of his life" without restriction "to classrooms, to books, to schools, central and important as these are"[46]. Such a complete view of education includes in the broad sense---adult education and self-education, as well as the narrow sense of schooling and training. But in no way can it be denied that education is a distinctly human activity; in its developed form, as a cumulative social process, it is confined to man. Julian Huxley defined it as a 'process by means of which knowledge, skill, technique, understanding, ideas, emotional and spiritual attitudes, are transmitted from individual to individual and from generation to generation. It is also a major part of the process by which the latest potentialities of the individual are actualized and developed to their fullest extent.' Huxley also felt that the approach of UNESCO must adopt certain general principles concerning education. He wrote that,

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[44] Lionel Elvin Education In the Minds of Men UNESCO 1946-1971, Paris, UNESCO, p 57.
[45] Ibid. p. 56.
[46] Howard Wilson, "Education and UNESCO", London, Oxford University Press, 1946, pp 11,13.

> First that education can be and should be a permanent and continuing process: the mind is capable of growth throughout life, and provision must be made for assisting its growth---in other words for education---among adults of all ages not only in children and young people.
> Next, that education has a social as well as an individual function: it is one of the means by which society as a whole can become conscious of its tradition and destiny, can fit itself to make adjustments to new conditions, and can inspire it to make new efforts towards a fuller realisation of its aims......
> Next, that education must seek not to confer knowledge, skills, habits and outlook upon individuals, but also to bring out and develop their inherent qualities and aptitudes, and to help them to realise their potentialities to the fullest degree possible.
> And finally, that education must not confine itself to objectives which are practical in the restricted sense of having immediate utility, whether for the individualor for society. On the contrary, it must include in its scope activities which are valued for their own sake, whether in the intellectual, the aesthetic, or the moral sphere.....[47]

Thus, education, since the inception of UNESCO came out as a lifelong process for all---the children and the adults---which had individual as well as social function. It aimed at bringing out all the best in the individual and it was hoped that this training would be of immediate use to society. It was axiomatic that the development of a strong, coherent programme in education was essential to the fullfilment of UNESCO's purposes.

ADULT EDUCATION:

The environment of adult education is, by history and structure, more accepting and less authoritarian than conventional education. Traditionally, adult education regards learners as volunteers. They learn whatever and whenever they want to learn. This environment springs largely from humanistic theories of learning. The humanist assumes that there is a proclivity for people to learn and that learning will flourish if nourishing, encouraging environments are provided. Implementing humanist theory in the learning society means providing for people multiple options, resources and materials, making them freely available to every one; helping learners to obtain what they want to learn and how they want to learn. This may also include a few value judgements regarding the quality and nature of their learning experiences. The UNESCO report 'Learning To Be'(1972), reflects the strong humanistic influence in adult education. It is recommended there that educational activities should be centred on the learner in order to allow him, "greater and greater freedom, as he matures, to decide for himself what he wants to learn and where he wants to learn it."[48]

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[47] Julian Huxley, op.cit., pp. 29-30.

Adult education was scarcely recognised as a special branch of education in 1946 when UNESCO was created: it was identified by some as synonymous with literacy, by others with workers' education, or as liberal education, and by most as some form of remedial or second chance education, a form of welfare or charity for the less fortunate. Still, the due importance was given to adult education from the early years of UNESCO. The report of Preparatory Commission of UNESCO heralded UNESCO's concern with adult education in the following words,'....no educational programme is complete unless it extends to adults'. Adult education represented in some ways the most promising field of activity for the educational efforts of UNESCO[49]. UNESCO principally associated adult education with the worldwide spread of democracy i.e. civic education. All developed and new emerging nations testified to the need of equipping the common man to play his part as a citizen. Combined with this democratic foundation for interest in adult education have been the rapid advances in technology which have increased the need for technical training.

Later, in the 1960s adult education was seen to be emerging from its marginal and narrow position in relation to formal educational system and was moving towards a central role in society's overall provision for education. UNESCO stressed that "Nothing less will suffice than that people everywhere should come to accept adult education as a normal, and that governments should treat it as a necessary, part of educational provision of every country."[50] After being considered as an integral part of the educational systems it appeared as one of the prerequisites for giving practical expression to the concept of lifelong learning. It was agreed upon that, 'adult education, however, must not be considered as an entity in itself, it is a sub-division, and an integral part of a global scheme for lifelong education and learning.'[51] Thus adult education takes over from where the formal education leaves the individual, and sometimes it has to start from the scratch, from numeracy and literacy. It offers more and varied educational opportunities to adults with contents and methods adapted to their needs and aspirations. Now, according to Edgar Faure it is very much an intrinsic part of the education.

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[48] Edgar Faure et.al., Learning to Be, Paris, UNESCO. 1972, p 220.
[49] Dr.Eugene Bussiere, then the director of the adult education programme of UNESCO's Education Section, had said, "In a sense the whole UNESCO programme bears, directly or indirectly upon adult education." Summary Report of the International Conference on Adult Education, UNESCO Publication No. 406, 1949, p 40.
[50] UNESCO, World Conference on Adult Education: Final Report, p. 9, UNESCO, Paris.

> The normal culmination of educational process is adult education.....It follows that adult education can no longer be a fringe sector of activity in any society and must be given its own proper place in educational policies and budgets. This means that school and out of school education must be linked firmly together.[52]

2.1.3 STRUCTURE AND FINANCE

Having discussed the 'purpose and philosophy' of UNESCO it is also necessary to understand the structure of its body, and how is it financed, to complete the background picture of this specialized agency of the United Nations.

UNESCO is composed of three organs: the General Conference, the Executive Board and the Secretariat. The General Conference, Organization's supreme authority, consists of representatives of Member States. It elects the members of the Executive Board and appoints the Director General. It is the sovereign body in deciding the general policy of the Organization. It also approves the programmes and votes the budget for the succeeding two year financial period. The other function of the General Conference is to call whenever required, international governmental or non-governmental conferences on education, science, the humanities or the dissemination of knowledge[53]. Originally the General Conference met yearly and was invited to different cities by the Member States. But in 1952 it was decided to extend UNESCO's operational programme over two years. Now, these General Conferences are held in the autumn of even dated years and last for four to six weeks. Its twentieth session was held in Paris from 24th October to 29th November, 1978 and its 21st session was scheduled for Belgrade in September, 1980.

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[51] Recommendation on the Development of Adult Education, Nairobi, 1976 p 2.
[52] E. Faure, op.cit. p 205.
[53] See Appendix I.

The Executive Board is composed of distinguished representatives of education, science and culture. The number of its members is continuously increasing, taking into account increases in the number of UNESCO's Member States. Since 1954, these members represent their respective governments though originally, they were elected in their personal capacity. There are forty five members in the Board today[54]. These members are elected for a single four year term[55]. This Board meets biannually. Its main function is to supervise the execution of the programmes and the administration of the budget between sessions of the General Conference. Apart from this it also nominates the Director-General prior to his appointment by the General Conference. It also examines the draft program and the budget for the next two years and submits it to the Conference along with the recommendations it finds suitable.

The Secretariat is the executive body responsible for UNESCO's normal functioning and for the application of decisions taken by the General Conference and the Executive Board, particularly in carrying out the program. Its official working languages are English and French[56]. Responsible for an international task, the Secretariat itself is international in its composition and status. Its directors, specialists and administrators are recruited on as wide a geographical basis as possible.

The Director-General[57] is the highest official of UNESCO; he is responsible for creating the administrative conditions necessary for the smooth functioning of UNESCO and for the execution of its programme; he prepares and administers the budget financing[58]. The Director-General, as the only elected member of the Sectretariat, himself appoints everyone else. He is assisted by a Deputy Director-General.

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[54] The membership of the board was increased from 24 to 30 at the 12th session of the General Conference in 1962, to 34 in 1968, to 40 at the 17th session in 1972, and to 45 at the 19th session in 1976.

[55] There is a system of electoral groupings whereby each region is allocated a specific number of board seats. Following the enlargement of the Board in 1976, these were allocated as follows:
Group I - Western European and other States - 10
Group II - Eastern European States - 4
Group III - Latin American States - 8
Group IV - Asian States - 7
Group V African and Arab States - 16.

[56] Simultaneous interpretation equipment allows the delegates to speak in one of the five languages; French, English, Spanish, Russian, and Arabic. Spanish was adopted in 1950, Russian in 1954 and Arabic was adopted in 1970.

[57] The present Director-General is Mr. Amadou Mahtar M'Bow of Senegal, West Africa, since 15th November 1974. Previous Directors-Generals have been Julian Huxley, of the United Kingdom, 1946-1948; Jaime Torres Bodet, of Mexico, 1948-52; Luther H. Evans, of the United States, 1953-58; Vittorino Veronese of Italy, 1958-61; and Rene Maheu, of France, 1962-1975.

The UNESCO Secretariat, at Headquarters, is divided into seven sectors. Though it started and continued for a very long time with five main sections of Education, Natural Sciences, Social Sciences, Culture and Comunication Sector and Administrative Sector. Now UNESCO Secretariat has two more sectors of Development and External Relations and the sector of Programme Support. All these principal sectors, each headed by an Assistant Director-General, are responsible for certain departments, offices and divisions[59]. Members of the Secretariat are recruited internationally to do an international job[60].

Education Sector is numerically the largest sector, currently allocated the largest share of the budget. Until 1947, the responsibility for education was vested on a single section. At that time, and in an effort to make a frontal attack on what were regarded as three critical areas in education, three separate divisions of UNESCO's education programmes were created. One, called Fundamental Education, was to concentrate on extending educational opportunity to peoples in underdeveloped areas in an effort to raise their entire living standard; another division, Continuing Services in Education, was presumably to encourage the on-going work of educational institutions in the areas where education had already reached substantial levels of achievement; and a third division called Education for International Understanding was to marshal the educational resources in the Member States to increase mutual understanding among the people of the world. Adult education was given due importance from the very beginning and a separate division had been responsible for it all through (though under different names). In 1949, Adult Education and Fundamental Education Divisions worked separately; in early sixties there was one division known as "Adult Education and Youth Activities"; in 1970 it was addressed as "Out-of-School Division", covering adult education, youth activities and literacy; in the later part of seventies adult education became the responsibility of "Youth Division"; and now, adult education comes under one integrated division of three bodies, known as "Division of Literacy, Adult Education and Rural Development"[61].

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[58] Richard Hoggart: "The most useful brief way to set about analysing the job and its peculiar isolation is to say that the Director-General has at one and the same time too much power---vastly too much power---and too little power, so little that for some main aspects of his roles he is rendered ineffective. .... He is called upon to serve a single entity---the Constitution---by governing bodies whose commitment to that entity is spasmodic and who have hardly any sense of common purpose." For more details see Richard Hoggart, UNESCO from Within, p.138., London: Chatto and Windus, 1978

[59] See Appendix II.

[60] As on 31 December, 1978, the total number of full-time staff employed by UNESCO on permanent, fixed term and short-term appointments was 3,301,drawn from 129 nationalities.

The Bureau of Relations with Member States, the Bureau of Relations with International Organizations and Programmes and the Office of International Norms and Legal Affairs are directly attached to the office of the Director-General. The International Bureau of Education at Geneva, which was one of the forerunners of UNESCO, is now an important part of the Organization.

Moreover, there are the regional offices[62] and centres which form an integral part of the Secretariat and are responsible for large scale programmes of activities mainly in education and natural sciences. Then there are international, national and regional centres, institutes and other bodies whose task is to carry out specific projects for UNESCO or under UNESCO's auspices. There is a New York office to provide liasion with the United Nations at its headquarters and a number of other centres and institutes which carry out work for UNESCO, and where UNESCO professionals form part or all of the staff. Besides, extra-governmental bodies also participate in UNESCO, like National Commissions, which have partial governmental representation and are created by the member states. Then there are non-governmental organizations(NGO's), which have no governmental representation and many of them have consultative status in UNESCO.

UNESCO and the MEMBER STATES:

UNESCO is an agency of the United Nations and all United Nations Member States have the right to belong to it[63]. States not members of the United Nations may be admitted to membership of UNESCO, upon recommendation of the Executive Board, by a two-thirds majority vote of the General Conference, provided that the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations has not recommended the rejection of their application for membership. At the national front membership in UNESCO is a matter of foreign policy, the ministry of foreign affairs provides the principal link with the organization. In most countries, however, the ministry of education is chiefly responsible for activities related to the UNESCO programme.

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[61] This placing of adult education under differently named divisions could have some administrative, organizational or structural reasons but it also indicates that there was no clearcut and definite view regarding the nature and scope of adult education or of its importance. This inconsistent placing reflects the dilemma---Should the place of adult education be decided by age-group (youth education), content (literacy, fundamental education), institution (out-of-school education) or for its own sake, for its own importance?

[62] There are four regional offices for education, and these are in Beirut, Bangkok, Dakar, and Santiago.

[63] But membership does not always correspond. For example, South Afica, left UNESCO at the end of 1956 over Organization's stand on race but continued its membership of the United Nations. On the other side, two of the most active Member States of UNESCO in 1970 included Switzerland and the Federal Rebublic of Germany, which had never been members of the United Nations.

The membership has grown from the twenty signatory states which brought it into existence in 1946 to 125 in 1971, to 155 in 1981 (See Table 1). There are associate members, who enjoy the same rights as members, except that they cannot vote at the General Conference or hold office on the Executive Board.

The yearly additions, particularly of Asian, African and Latin American countries made UNESCO more representative of the Third World. Membership of UNESCO in 1946 included only one country in Southern Africa and Three in Asia. This composition changed with tune. In 1960 only, 17 African countries became Member States. These new emergent nations gave new impetus to UNESCO's involvement with development[64].

The Secretariat is merely one of UNESCO's organs to play as the normal channel for collaboration with Member States. The chief performer of all the activities are the Member States themselves. The Secretariat can arrange for the exchange of views, consider the plans of action and co-ordinate the execution of those plans. But the decision to employ these various potentialities for any definite undertaking, rests with Member States. Only through the will and acts of Member States can UNESCO fulfil its true purpose.

> UNESCO is, indeed, none other than the sum of joint efforts of its Member States. Its work is first and foremost their work. It is from their contributions, both within and without the budget, that it draws bulk of its financial resources. The extent and importance of its achievements depend on their share in the execution of its programme. The regular and effective discharge of its duties depends upon their joint will.[65]

This remark of the Director-General shows that there is a strong hold of member states on UNESCO. Only in the context of national policy of these member states

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[64] By the beginning of 1971 UNESCO had been engaged on development projects involving US$ 186 million from UNDP.

[65] UNESCO, The Report of The Director-General, General Conference, Sixth Session, June-July 1951, p. 9.

Distribution of Member States by Region

Major Regions	1950	(%)	1960	(%)	1970	(%)	1980	(%)
Europe and North America	19	(33)	28	(28)	31	(25)	34	(22)
Arab States	6	(10)	11	(11)	14	(11)	18	(12)
Asia and the Pacific	15	(26)	22	(22)	25	(20)	30	(20)
Latin America & the Caribbean	17	(29)	20	(20)	24	(19)	28	(18)
Africa	1	(02)	19	(19)	30	(24)	43	(28)
TOTAL Member States	58		100		124		153	

TABLE 1: Distribution of Member States by Region

Source: Report of the Director - General, 1979 - 1980, 22 C/3. Unesco Paris 1981 towards UNESCO one can understand the changing, growing and experimental character of UNESCO's programmes. For example, if few nations do not make adequate administrative arrangements for large-scale cooperation in UNESCO's programme it has got to be affected.

Wherever the major responsibility on UNESCO affairs is assigned, it is essential that the member state has a staff that is adequate in size, competence and influence to ensure that national action will conform the policy declaration. This action of national government also means analysis of programme advanced by UNESCO headquarters; development of additional programme proposals necessary to meet national needs; integrating government's UNESCO policy with other aspects of its foreign policy; developing national activity necessary to carry out UNESCO projects; assisting UNESCO in locating qualified personnel for service; briefing delegations to General-Conference and other meetings; and carrying out the extensive communications that flow between UNESCO and member states.

HOW UNESCO WORKS:

Though an autonomous body, UNESCO is nevertheless a specialized agency of the United Nations. These agencies are administratively independent but they have special contractual relations with the United Nations, legally defined by an agreement reached in December 1946. Under this agreement, UNESCO's work is co-ordinated by the United Nations Economic and Social Council with the programmes and activities of other Specialized Agencies. Reciprocally, UNESCO has the legal status of technical adviser to the various United Nations bodies in fields coming within its competence: for example, it participated, in the study report submitted by Member States to the Commission on Human Rights, and it carried out some important surveys, for example on the main trends in research in the Natural Sciences, the state of illiteracy throughout the world and ways of eradicating it, the needs of developing countries in regard to the mass media, the use of Space communication for education and so on.

In its operational activities, UNESCO frequently works closely with other United Nations Agencies active in other fields, for example, the International Labour Office (ILO) in "functional literacy" projects involving industrial training or with the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) when such projects involve agricultural training. The most important of all forms of co-operation is UNESCO's work for development with the United Nations. Since 1950[66], UNESCO had been the executing agency for projects involving millions of dollars from the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). UNESCO has been concerned in the establishment of educational institutes which could train people in needed skills, in the introduction of new techniques to improve productivity and in providing advisory and consulting services. Inside the United Nations Systems UNESCO's joint work with the World Bank in the educational field has been going on since an agreement was signed between the two organizations in 1964. The agreement provides that the Bank's Educational Projects Department would evaluate applications for loans and interest-free credits for educational projects (involving capital expenditure for building), while UNESCO, through its Educational Financing Division would help identify projects on behalf of the Bank and would help prepare loan requests to the Bank on behalf of the Member States. Thus, UNESCO works for the both sides. Moreover, UNESCO sends out teams of specialists--experts in agricultural or technical education, economists, architects and social scientists--to assess the projects on the spot; these teams help to provide the data which the countries need for planning and the Bank needs to decide on viability and priority.

FINANCE:

UNESCO's activities are financed from a regular Budget and from extra-budgetary funds which the Organization receives for programmes carried out jointly with other institutions and agencies of the United Nations. The regular budget is voted by two yearly General Conference, which also fixes the percentage each Member State to contribute[67]. The scale of assessment is based on the United Nations scale[68], but adjusted because the membership of the two organizations.

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[66] In 1950, UNESCO made its first technical assistance agreement, to supply an education adviser, with the Lebanese Government.

[67] See Appendix III for Membership of the UNESCO and Contributions.

[68] "The United Nations scale is calculated on the national income of the member nations (net national product at market price averaged over three years) with adjustments to take into account the comparative income per head of the population and the ability of Members to secure foreign currency. No member country is assessed at more than 30 per cent of the budget or less than 0.04 per cent, while a third limitation on assessments sets the per capita contribution of the largest contributor as a ceiling for all Member States: no State can be assessed in such a way that it pays more per head of its population than the largest contributor does." Taken from Looking at UNESCO, UNESCO, Paris, 1971, p.43

UNESCO's first Regular Budget was US $7 million for one year. Budget for 1961-62 was US $16.3 million, the amount agreed for 1971-72 was US $89,898,560 and for 1980-81 it was U.S. $303 million[69].

What Member States contribute through their assessments for the Regular Budget is the only a part of the funds UNESCO normally has its disposal. The Organization is financed by other agencies too. Its increasingly active participation in assistance to developing countries has meant the rapid evolution for UNESCO in recent years. The Organization has devoted a considerable share of its own budget since 1954 to activities in education, science, culture and mass-communication, undertaken at the request of Member States on their own territory to promote national development. But UNESCO's operational activities are mainly financed by funds made available through the United Nations Development Program, to which countries make voluntary donations over and above their contributions to the functioning of the United Nations. In the early years of its inception, UNESCO focussed mainly on education---on the use of the mass media for international understanding and cooperation and the promotion of human rights. After that UNESCO gave priority to those activities which furthered economic and social progress in developing countries. This meant cooperation with the United Nations Development Program[70]. The principal aim of the Technical Assistance Program, launched in 1949, was to assist countries upon their request to strengthen their national economy. Though it was fragmentary in the beginning, these assistance programmes have been progressively integrated since 1954, into the national development plans of the countries concerned. UNESCO mainly carries out projects in the field of primary, secondary, technical and adult education, scientific research and science teaching, social sciences and mass media.

The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development and its affiliate, the International Development Association, have displayed interest in the area of education, so UNESCO and these two agencies have started sharing mainly financial responsibilities for a few programmes.

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[69] No doubt this increase reflects the growth in the size of the Organization's membership and the the scope of its work, but this increase is not the outcome of step by step gradual evolution over last thirty years. Between 1947 to 1959 the budget rose very slowly but after 1960 there was a sharp upward curve in the graph. It rose at the yearly rate of 44.9 for the biennium 1971-71, and after that the growth has been at the rate of around 24 percent per annum in the budget.

[70] Created by the merging of the Technical Assistance Program and the Special Fund in January 1966.

Among all the sectors of UNESCO Education Sector gets the major share of funds. From the very beginning the percentage of funds' allocation for education had been around 33 to 34 per cent of the total budget. But whereas education sector's budget shows a high percentage and a consistency, the adult education division received a meagre amount from the educational budget and this allocation had been quite inconsistent during the past thirty years (See Table 2). For example, in 1950 the budget for adult education division was 3.72% of educational budget and in 1955 it increased to 5.9% and again went down to 2.4% in 1960. It was the time when attention was drawn to meagreness of the budget for adult education in the Montreal Conference and due to importance given to literacy programmes the budget in 1965 was divided into adult education and literacy separately. While literacy bagged 14.7% adult education got 0.4% only. In the budget of 1979-80 adult education received 1.7% of the total budget for education and other two parts of the division got much more, literacy got 4.5% and so did the division of rural development, 4.5%[71].

2.1.4 OPERATIONAL ACTIVITIES OF UNESCO IN THE EARLY YEARS

UNESCO's immediate task in the early years[72] was to stimulate awareness of the problem of illiteracy, present the need of adult education, define terms, and identify the best methods of action. It started with organizing meetings of specialists. It showed its magnetic influence in drawing together widely dispersed persons and groups interested in literacy, fundamental education and adult education. Earlier, such groups had had little chance to compare methods or exchange ideas. UNESCO brought together, through meetings and discussions, the experiences of Margaret Read of London, the efforts of Frank C. Laubach and Henry W. Holmes of the United States, James Y.P. Yen of China, Jaimes Torres Bodet of Mexico and the experiments of nearly half a century in colonial territories of the United Kingdom.

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[71] This distribution of budget again reflects the uncertainty about the nature and scope of adult education. Are literacy and rural development not the part of adult education? Further, sometimes money is separately allocated for lifelong learning (for example, in 1969-70 and in 1975-76). Then the question arises: is adult education not a part of lifelong learning?

[72] UNESCO's policies and programmes after 1949 would be discussed in the following chapters.

UNESCO's Expenditure on Adult Education

Year	Education	Adult Education	Literacy	Rural Development	Lifelong Education
1979-80	155 m	2.7 m	7 m	7 m	
1975-76	112 m	42 th	5 m	4 m	7 m
1969-70	44 m	500 th	7 m		22 th
1965-66	34 m	136 th	5 m		
1960	3 m	74 th			
1955	1.7 m	101 th			
1950	1.1 m	41 th			
1948	177 th	147 th			

TABLE 2: UNESCO's Expenditure on Education, Adult Education, Literacy, Rural Development and lifelong Education between the years 1948 and 1980.

Source: Budget of UNESCO.

Abbrevitions used in the table:

m = million

th = thousand

Through organised meetings the most important step taken was the exchange of information on current projects and educational missions. Provision for "associated projects" was an ingenious scheme. Through this clearing house arrangement UNESCO would be kept informed of experiments, successful or unsuccessful, in different parts of the world. So ideas in fundamental education could be tried out systematically and the results compared. Records of various experiments and expert opinions were marshalled to work out the practical plan to meet the needs of the newly independent countries like India, Pakistan, Burma and Indonesia. Some of UNESCO's early activities did not distinguish sharply between 'fundamental education' and other kinds of education. In the initial stage of UNESCO's program several Member States requested guidance in solving their educational problems, and UNESCO responded by sending an international team of experts. Some of these requests involved both reform of existing educational systems and literacy campaigns for the illiterates. For example, the UNESCO mission, sent to Philippines, in 1949 examined primary education, adult education and teacher training.

UNESCO, from the very beginning, encouraged educational leaders to meet and work together. In 1947, UNESCO sponsored two regional study conferences on fundamental education, one at Nanking and the other one in Mexico city. In 1948, UNESCO cooperated with the Organization of American States to discuss the problems of literacy campaign and rural education. The followimg year another seminar was held at Quitandinha, Brazil, dealing with measures to promote literacy by American Republics. In 1949, a seminar on rural adult education was held in Mysore, India, with representatives from fifty six countries.

So an international attack had been made on the problems of illiteracy and insufficient education with an object of furthering human progress and international understanding. The first General Conference of UNESCO (1946) had advocated the setting up of a limited number of 'Pilot Projects' as a part of Organization's work in Fundamental Education. These 'Pilot Projects' were to be conceived as 'concentrated experiments' to be carried out by the national governments concerned in cooperation with UNESCO. It was hoped that in these 'Pilot Projects' new methods would be developed, old methods tested and the results made known to other governments through UNESCO's Clearing House. It was not possible for UNESCO to concern itself with millions of illiterates immediately. The initial idea was rather to send a few experts to help and with the expectation that the people of that area would take action themselves 'within the frame-works of their own cultures, needs and possibilities' [73].These projects were undertaken in the beginning. Unfortunately, the Tanganyika and Nyasaland projects had eventually to be shelved due to technical and administrative difficulties. The fate of Haiti experiment was different[74], though many difficulties had to be overcome.

The concept of development evolved over the years to become a central theme of the policies and programmes of UNESCO today it was only implicit in the spirit of UNESCO's 1946-49 Constitution. The main concern of the founding fathers was to construct the defences of peace in the minds of men and so create a lasting peace for the intellectual and moral solidarity of mankind. It was stated that the main cause of mistrust and suspicion was the ignorance of each other's ways and lives, there was denial of the democratic principles of dignity, equality and co-operation which resulted in inequality of men and races. The constitution stressed the need to advance the mutual knowledge and understanding of peoples in order to contribute to peace and security. The development of educational activities and giving fresh impulse to popular education was considered most important activity to achieve permanent peace. It is obvious that the just after the disaster of two world wars, peace and understanding based on the basic values of freedom and democracy were the main concern of those who wrote charter to establish UNESCO. The eradication of poverty and the renewal or transformation of the traditional societies did not emerge as the major problems of time. Further the idea that education could make substantial contributions to the solution of these problems, was not yet generated.

At the first session of the General Conference in 1946, UNESCO was made responsible for the task of reconstruction of education and restoration of cultural treasures in war devasted areas, particularly in Europe. At the same time, the first surveys of needs in mass communication were made in different regions, including some countries in Asia and Latin America. This work of reconstruction and collection of data concerning the needs of nations led to new programmes and methods in the field of development. Development was defined as "social and economic development." In 1947--The emerging concept of development was mainly confined to the notion of aid. Actually it was a time of trial and error providing valuable experience to UNESCO and limited but much needed assistance to Member States. Yet, from the early days of its inception, UNESCO has been ..e most consistent champion of the idea that the illiterate masses of the world should be emancipated and brought out of ignorance through universal literacy. But it was only in the fifties that the need for such an action became apparent, though assistance projects were dispersed and were neither integrated in plans and policies at the national level nor in global strategies.

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[73] Theodore Besterman, UNESCO:Peace in the Minds of Men, London, Methuen and Co., 1951, p. 14.
[74] discussed in Appendix IV.

CHAPTER III

THE BEGINNING 1949-1959

During the 1950s several factors were changing the world scene. The various political, ideological and sociological forces were manifested in Great Power rivalry, growing armaments and cold-war realities. The prosperity of the Western World increased, while extreme poverty and misery persisted in many Third World countries. Assistance to development was an important theme in the General Conference of UNESCO and its programmes were directed to the needs of the economically underdeveloped countries. In this process of development UNESCO underwent a significant change by bringing itself into line with world developments. The activities of UNESCO directed towards development were a significant achievement. The primary task of early years, of intellectual communication and its contribution to peace was supplemented by operational activities aimed at promoting the welfare of societies. Regular programmes of UNESCO were coordinated with the growing programmes of technical assistance (which was attracting large increase from sources outside the normal budget voted by the General Conference) but the Organization tried to maintain a balance between intellectual and operational activities and their interdependences. Adult education was considered one of the means to keep this balance and due importance was given to this particular area by UNESCO.

In the Constitution of UNESCO, adult education was taken up as one of its major responsibilities from the very beginning. But so much was meant by this single term, especially since its meaning differed from country to country, that to give it a definition and purpose became the immediate objective of the Organization. To meet this need the first international conference on adult education was held in 1949 at Elsinore, Denmark. Two other international conferences followed after regular intervals of eleven years. These three conferences can be considered three 'landmarks' in the evolution of ideas about adult education concerning its nature, aims and application. It has been noted by Kidd that 'the accumulated impact of the three has changed the face and form of adult education, or at least has accelerated the pace of that change.....The three conferences varied considerably in *dramatis personae*, in style, in mood, and in content. But each in turn reflected the concerns of the day and affected subsequent activities[75]

3.1 THE ELSINORE CONFERENCE

At Elsinore, so soon after the termination of World War II, the delegates were quite aware of the 'shifting sands on which civilization rested' [76]. They agonised over man's condition and knew that if man had to participate fully in the complex form of political organization--named democracy--he had to be well informed, and education was the only factor capable of fulfilling this need. But at the same time they wondered if adult education had any answer, or even could speak to the problems of war, the undemocratic state of affairs and human bestiality.

The need for definition of adult education was foremost in this conference.The discussions revealed that the nature of adult education varied so much from place to place that it was impossible to frame a definition which could satisfy all. It was probably to please many, that the conference declared that "adult education has the task of satisfying the needs and aspirations of adults in all their diversity. "Still, the definition which dominated UNESCO's conception of that field at the time of this conference was pretty close to the traditional definition used in the United Kingdom, which somewhat restricted the term 'adult education' to the liberal education of adults. E.M. Hutchinson thus defined adult education in Elsinore conference:

> Adult education is taken to mean those forms of education which are undertaken voluntarily by mature people (persons above the age of 18) and which have as their aim the development, without direct regard to their vocational value, of personal abilities and aptitudes, and the encouragement of social, moral and intellectual responsibility within the framework of local, national and world citizenship. [77]

British and Scandinavian thinking affected UNESCO significantly and this definition was quite restrictive in international context, and not at all applicable with reference to the developing countries. The recommendations of the delegates also strengthened the above conception of adult education, the practical result being that UNESCO's contribution to adult education, though important, remained un-coordinated at the international level. In short, the aims of adult education in the conference appeared thus:

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[75] J.R.Kidd, "A Tale of Three Cities: Elsinore, Montreal, Tokyo", p 1, Syracuse University Publications.

[76] A.S.M.Hely, op.cit. p 24.

[77] E.M.Hutchinson: Relations between Adult Education, Voluntary Agencies..... in 'Adult Education, Current Trends and Practices.', UNESCO, Paris, 1949, p. 54.

1. to foster a common culture which would narrow down the gap between the 'masses' and the'classes';
2. to use adult education for civic reponsibility;
3. to stimulate a spirit of democracy and tolerance;
4. to bring in international co-operation and cultivate a sense of membership in the world community;
5. to restore the feeling of belongingness in this isolated modern world.

In the introduction to the report of commission the need of education was summed up:

> Each individual does not live alone or for himself only; he belongs to family, economic, social and national groups towards which he is certain obligatios. A democratic education has to ensure a harmonious balance between the individual's rights to a personal, free and human life and his duties towards the community to which he belongs. Thus it is the task of adult education to provide individuals with the knowledge essential for the performance of this economic, social and political functions and especially to enable them, through participation in the life of their communities, to live a fuller and more harmonious life Accordingly, the aim of adult education is not so much to provide instruction as to ensure a training, it seeks to create an atmosphere of intellectual curiosity, social freedom and tolerance and to stimulate in each person the demand and the capacity to take part in the development of the cultural life of his day. [71]

As this conference was particularly concerned with the industrial societies of the West, it focussed on the outcomes of industrialization. It proclaimed the need of adult education to cure the psychological loneliness of men in the urbanised societies, eliminating the gulf between the ordinary men and the intellectuals, and to deal with the hidden problem of too much leisure.

Again, while examining adult education in the sphere of international understanding and cooperation, European experience was reflected in the recommendations of delegates to the Elsinore Conference regarding future international co-operation. It was agreed that it was a bit early to establish a permanent international organization, but the need for one effective machinery was felt to secure cooperation among organizations and leaders of adult education through out the world. For the time being such a machinery could work through UNESCO. It was therefore recommended that UNESCO should set up a consultative committee on adult education to act in an advisory capacity to the UNESCO

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[71] International Conference on Adult Education, Elsinore, 1949, Summary Report, UNESCO, Paris, p 12

Adult Education Division. This committee had to be composed of the most important agencies engaged in adult education, including voluntary agencies, and of representatives from recognised international bodies.

The failure of universal and compulsory education also created the need for adult education to provide an educated democracy. Earlier, in the 19th century, no society, whether advanced or backward, had been able to afford more than a handful of educated people, but by the mid-twentieth century it was considered that for societies to be fully effective, for their total development, they needed a minimum level of education for everybody. The uneducated or under-educated were a liability to society. Therefore the participants in the Elsinore Conference realized that to maintain effective democracy education should step outside the boundaries of formal schools and curricula. It was also realised that existing approaches in the liberal education of adults were only involving a small minority of potential adult students, and a sounder and more extensive period of school education was required to bring in awareness among the youths for future adult education. But it was agreed that "until such extended educational facilities were available adult education must continue to carry a major responsibility for remedial education even in the countries possessing the most advanced provision for universal and compulsory education."[79]

Regarding the content of adult education it was agreed that as intended to satisfy the various needs of the adults it should have a dynamic and functional view as compared to the intellectual conception'. Adult eduction was to include different programmes to take account of adults' different motives and learning needs. Among those were the following,

1. Vocational education, since as adult has responsibilities at different levels, it must include vocational guidance, pre-vocational training, refresher courses.
2. Social content training meant the economic, social and political training of adults with their everyday activities and their basic needs.
3. Science, to encourage the growth of a scientific mental attitude and to emphasize and and explain the social repercussion of science.
4. Art, in its widest sense to include the products of all artistic and cultural activity: theatre, cinema, visual arts, literature, music museums etc. and recreation to give adult education a balance.

The educators who met at Elsinore could not or did not, devote much attention to the educational problems of the underdeveloped countries, but they did draw attention in their report to one very important and pertinent point under the heading 'less developed areas'. It was stated that all people, literate or illiterate have to deal with professional, civic, socio-economic, cultural and other questions, so an immediate action should be taken in the areas where education is backward, and the content of education should be determined by the particular needs of that region.

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[79] A.S.M.Hely, op.cit. p.32

> While literacy is not indispensable, it does enable people to become independent students capable of educating themselves. It allows them to widen and deepen their knowledge and to share in the great cultural movements which are mainly disseminated through written texts.
>
> Among less developed peoples, then, adult education should lead to a maximum forward effort in all branches of education......The content of education in less developed areas must be determined in harmony with the people's own customs, their own ways of life, their particular needs as they themselves see and experience them. The task of adult education is to take stock of their position and to develop programmes accordingly---to advance in a direction freely chosen by the people and not to impose programmes from without.[10]

Discussing the effectiveness of various agencies, working in the field of adult education, it was agreed upon to achieve the best results and to avoid interagency rivalry adult education should be a joint responsibility, of private voluntary bodies, universities and schools, libraries and of the state (with proper division of responsibility).

It was pointed out that the basic issue, pertaining to the methodology to be used in adult education is linked with the concept of its general purpose.

> Since there are such a variety of purposes in adult education and since the combinations of circumstances are all but infinite in number, it becomes clear that the problem of method is not solved by an inventory of methods which have been successfully employed, but rather by a consideration of the factors which determine methods. Every situation which an adult educator faces is unique, and the method to be used must be selected to fit the particular situation.[11]

The effectiveness of different methods and techniques was discussed at the Conference, such as courses and classes, lectures, correspondence courses, audio-visual aids, circulating libraries, museums, cine-club urban and rural community or cultural centres, neighbourhood groups, etc. Success with different experiments e.g. Folk High Schools, Centres d'Education Populaire, Camp Laquemac, was also examined to evaluate the significance of these experiences in the field of adult education and leadership. The importance of methods and techniques such as group research, community survey, popular travel and their contribution to adult education was discussed.

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[10] Summary Report of the International Conference on Adult Education, Elsinore, 1949, p 15.

[11] W.C.Hallenback, Methods and Techniques in Adult Education, in Current Trends..... op.cit p. 77

The Elsinore Conference constituted a major step forward in international cooperation and consultation in the field of adult education, but its limitation must be recognised. This conference lacked adequate representation from the developing countries so it failed to examine the changes that were taking place in the non-western part of the world, and failed to recognise the implication, which such changes might have in terms of adult education's needs and programmes in these socities. Of the delegates and observers who met there, 54 come from fourteen European countries and 14 came from North America, 11 delegates represented the rest of the world. Egypt with one delegate, was the only country from the continent of Africa, and there was one representative from the whole of Latin America, three delegates represented Asia, one from China, one from Pakistan, and one from Thailand. There was no representation from Eastern countries or of USSR. Thus, in spite of being referred to as international, the Elsinore Conference remained essentially a West European regional conference on adult education.

Seeing the flexible world situation these delegates cannot be blamed totally for not putting forth the case of the developing countries. In 1949 the changes were taking place so fast that the coming trends were not clear. Many Asian countries had achieved independence and in some countries outright revolt or post-war unrest was taking shape in the form of terrorism or guerilla warfare. Nationalism was emerging in many African countries. During this period of unstability and transition, deciding the needs of the adult population of these developing countries was really a difficult job.

As a result of the Elsinore Conference adult education was given an importance hitherto unequalled in the educational activities of nations and a great many experimental programmes were organized, in particular basic education programmes. Voluntary organizations gained importance and developed their activities at international level. Still, UNESCO's programme in adult education was restricted in scope and in size due to two main reasons. First the term adult education was attached to a minor section within the Education Department of UNESCO where literacy and Fundamental education were 'closely related to adult education'. The Adult Education Division being a smaller administrative sub-section within UNESCO had little chances to grow up properly. Secondly there were still confusion regarding the importance UNESCO attached to adult education and regarding the types of activities which came within its scope. Moreover, resources available to the adult education division were very limited and it had to concentrate on few set objectives of the narrow definition of adult education. After the Elsinore Conference, adult education appeared as workers' education and developed in the context of industrialized countries. Fundamental Education, though a programme for integrated community development, had a great adult educational component.

3.2 ADULT EDUCATION

The Adult Education Division, after 1949, concentrated mainly on workers' education, as in most of the countries workers formed the largest social group which remained educationally underprivileged. This concentration on workers' education gave the impression that UNESCO equated adult education with workers' education. With UNESCO's primary focus on workers' education many international workers' organization got representation on UNESCO's Consultative Committee. During 1952 and 1953 seminars and summer schools were held at the International Centre of Workers' Education at La Breviere, France. Some of these meetings were organized by UNESCO itself and others by international Worker's organizations. But later it become clear that despite their supposedly international character these meetings benefitted the urban workers in Europe and North America only. So it was decided to decentralize the projects and UNESCO assisted Member states in holding regional seminars on regional problems. These met in Austria, France and Jamaica in 1952, in the Dominican Republic and Italy in 1953, in Belgium in 1954, in Scandinavian countries and Italy in 1955, and in Chile, Belgium, Poland, the United Kingdom, and Yugoslavia in 1956. In 1954 a UNESCO seminar on rural education was held in Denmark. Moreover, UNESCO helped four international workers organizations to hold conferences in different parts of the world in the period of 1954 to 1956. These conferences were mostly held in developing countries: the international Confederation of Free Trade Unions, successively at Calcutta and the Gold Coast in Africa ; the international Federation of Christian Trade Unions, Chile and Togoland; the Federation of Worker's Educational Associations, in the Gold Coast and

Austria; the International Cooperative Alliance, in Haiti and Austria[12].

UNESCO also helped the individual countries in carrying out significant and successful experiments. In 1954 UNESCO collaborated with the French Broadcasting and Television Services in telecasts on rural life. These telecasts designed for adult education dealt with modern methods of farming, credit cooperatives, community spirit, and other rural problems. This focus very much illustrates the similarity between adult education in a developed country like France and fundamental education in a less developed country. The response to these programmes was very enthusiastic so a sound series followed in 1955. Later on, at the request of Italian government UNESCO sent experts to Rome to help broadcasters and educators develop tele-clubs in southern Italy. UNESCO also helped Japan with an experiment in using television for adult education in rural areas. In the United States the National Commission started in 1954 a programme of "citizen consultation". These discussions were set up to examine the responses on such topics as the teaching of foreign language, technical assistance for economic development, the moral and spiritual resources for international understanding. The recommendations of these groups were forwarded to the National Commission to help in formulating policy.

Comparatively UNESCO's activities in the area of adult education had been more modest than that of fundamental education in the beginning, but still adult education cut across most of UNESCO's programme areas and experience gained in this area made every aspect of UNESCO's work effective. It was in the late fiftees that, the original emphasis on exhange of information, study groups and conferences, shifted to adult education in the developing countries, improvement of methods, and a sharp focus on international understanding[13]

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[12] A Summary review of UNESCO's adult education programme (1946-1950) is given in Hurbert C. Hunsaker, 'UNESCO's Work in Adult Education', Harvard Educational Review, vol. XX, no. 3, (Summer 1950), pp 169-175.

[13] W.E.F.Ward," UNESCO at Montevideo", Oversea Education, vol XXVLI, no 1, April 1955 , p 17

In view of close relationship between UNESCO's work in adult and fundamental education, a merging of these two programmes, beginning in 1951, was envisaged. Secretariat's proposed work plan put emphasis on the establishment of close relationship with cooperative movements, workers' education movements, literacy campaigns, and educational efforts in the fields of health and conservation of natural resources.

3.3 FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION

Fundamental Education may be described as an inspiring attempt of UNESCO to build a "new social order". It was UNESCO's very first attempt towards development and consisted of a programme based on the concept of "partnership"...working with rather than for the people. UNESCO championed the cause of Fundamental Education with the faith that as wars begin in the minds of men defenses of peace must be constructed there. But no lasting peace can be achieved when half of the world is ignorant, illiterate ill-fed, and poor, so there is need of Fundamental Education, to further the causes of 'human welfare'.

A conference of a limited number of experts was called in November, 1947, in Mexico to determine the minimum level of education a man needs. It called the programme fundamental education, because it would enable man to live a fuller and happier life in a changing environment, to achieve control of his physical and social environment. 'The conference held that fundamental education should be especially and immediately concerned with less advanced communities and underprivileged groups of advance countries, where poverty, disease and ignorance constitute a barrier to human development. Sir Alfred Zimmern, speaking to the first meeting of the preparatory commission, stressed UNESCO's role in the responsibility to help countries where large masses of human beings live 'in condition not only of poverty but of ignorance, and of removable ignorance.' [14]

In the preparatory commission the Fundamental Education programme (as it was called later) was considered so "urgent" that it was put among Priority one projects. In its final report, UNESCO justified this decision.

> The Charter of the United Nations points out the stability of well-being is neccessary if peaceful and friendly relations are to be created. Such conditions imply advances in economic and living standards as well as the universal acceptance and observance of fundamental human rights and freedom. The present educational inequality between nations represents a danger to the peace of the world which cannot become one if half of it remains illiterate. [15]

Definition: After a few years in November 1950, UNESCO prepared an official definition of Fundamental Education and presented it like this :

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[14] Henry W. Holmes (ed), Fundamental Education: Common Ground for All Peoples. Report of a Special Committee to the Preparatory Commission of the UNESCO, New York, Macmillan, 1947, p 1-2.

[15] UNESCO, Preparatory Commission. Report of the programme of UNESCO, UNESCO, Paris, 1946, p.6

> Fundamental Education is that kind of minimum and general education which is to help children and adults who do not have the advantage of formal education, to understand the problems of their immediate environment and their rights and duties as citizens and individuals, and to participate more effectively in the economic and social progress of the community.
>
> It is fundamental in the sense that it gives the minimum knowledge and skills which is an essential condition for attaining an adequate standard of living. It is a prerequisite to the full effectiveness of work in the health, agriculture and similar skilled services. It is general in the sense that this knowledge and these skills are not imparted for their own sake only. It uses active methods. It focuses interests on practical problems in the environment, and in this way seeks to develop both individual and social life.
>
> It is concerned with children for whom there is no adequate system of primary schooling and with adults deprived of educational opportunity; it utilizes all suitable media for the development through individual effort and through community life.[16]

From the above definition it is clear that Fundamental Education seemed to assume the need for a minimum level of education and secondly, that the best way to attain that minimum level of education was through voluntary participation of the people. Imparting a minimum level of education was the explicit expression of humanism and idealism with which UNESCO and its Fundamental Education were identified in the post-war years. It was felt that no man should be allowed to lead a poor and miserable life. And providing a minimum level of education was "an essential condition for attaining an adequate standard of living." The second assumption of Fundamental Education was the social and economic progress can be achieved only with the active participation of the people and not by imposing new way of life on them. It was stated :

> It is implicit in the philosophy of Fundamental Education that such progress should be achieved as far as possible 'by the people' rather than for the people.[17]

The programme in fundamental education begins with a recommendation to the Member States:
'that they provide fundamental education for all their people...including the establishment as soon as possible of universal free and compulsary primary education, and also

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[16] UNESCO, A definition of Fundamental Education. UNESCO, Paris, 1952. Mimeographed (Document UNESCO/ED/94(rev)

Despite this comprehensive definition, the term 'fundamental education' was never used with clarity or consistency and many UNESCO delegates found the term quite confusing, Consequently at the 10th General Conference of UNESCO (1958), a resolution was passed which instructed the Director-General "to discontinue as rapidly as feasible the use of the term "fundamental education" in all official documents of UNESCO," (UNESCO "Report of the programme commission to the General Conference", Paris, UNESCO. 1958, p.16 Document 10 C/72

[17] UNESCO, Fundamental Education: Description and Programme, Monographs on Fundamental Education, No.1, UNESCO, Paris, 1949, p.2

education for adults.'

The general principle of UNESCO was that the lightening of the "dark zones" of the world must claim a major share of efforts in all fields. So there had to be an attack on illiteracy. Illiteracy is not only an obstacle to economic progress but to progress in the war on ignorance, poverty, and disease[11]. So UNESCO proceeded with the faith that literacy is a prerequisite for scientific and technical advance, for more productive industry, for better living conditions, for full intellectual awareness, for that social and political consiousness which is the necessary basis for democracy and national progress.

On reflection it was found that stress on mere literacy was not enough. It had to be a part of general system of education. Adult illiterates need social education along with literacy, mainly in relation to health, agriculture and citizenship. Therefore UNESCO merged literacy campaigns in more comprehensive programmes of fundamental education. Though literacy was regarded as a necessary step to achieve above mentioned benefits it was not enough. Nor, was literacy only, once achieved necessarily going to lead either to democracy or to the true development of society.

Since Fundamental Education was defined in an unusually broad and all-inclusive manner, UNESCO conceived its content to include almost the entire range of human activities that would have direct or indirect contribution to economic and social progress. The content, therefore, varied widely with needs:

1. Skills of thinking and communicating (reading and writing, speaking, listening and calculation).
2. Vocational skills (e.g. agriculture, husbandry, building, weaving etc.,)
3. Domestic Skills (e.g. preparing foods, taking care of children)
4. Skills used in self-expression in arts and crafts.
5. Education for health through personal and community hygiene.
6. Knowledge and understanding of human environment (economic and social organization, law and government).
7. Knowledge of other parts of the world and the people who live in them.
8. The development of qualities to fit men to live in the modern world, and
9. Spiritual and moral development, belief in ethical ideals, and the habit of acting upon them; with the duty to examine traditional standards of behaviour and to modify them to suit new conditions.

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[11] True, illiteracy cannot be regarded as synonymous with ignorance. Many illiterates have a great share of wisdom and store of folk knowledge and they can earn their living too. But illiteracy makes for ignorance of the discoveries of modern science concerning hygiene and health, agricuture, and nutrition; and for ignorance of other people who live beyond the horizon. So this ignorance is consequently linked with underproduction and undernourishment, bad sanitary conditions and endemic disease. Thus a vicious circle of underdevelopment and poverty is created. Illiteracy is both a cause and consequence of such conditions.

All the scholars who propagated Fundamental Education wanted it to transcend all limitation of sex, religion, tribe, etc. Albert Charton, writing for the Preparatory Commission of UNESCO, argued that Fundamental Education was both 'basic', because it dealt with the basic necessities of everyday living; and 'popular' ('universal') because fundamental education 'transcends the limitations of class, age, sex or religion'[89]. Further this 'basic' and 'popular' education 'must comply with conditions that are embodied deep the in life of peoples and that reflect their creeds, needs, and aspirations.' [90] Charton felt that a certain degree of education is a must for the existence and consciousness of a nation and it must rest upon the social, human, and economic environment which it has to transform. He wrote,

> In new countries, backward or poorly educated countries, as well as in countries with an ancient civilization which have hitherto been brought up within themselves, there is a close interdependence between economic and social development and education. Economic and social progress is not only a consequence but also a conditions of general education. It (fundamental education) must be responsible for the whole progress of the whole country. [91]

As far as the "Class room" of Fundamental Education was concerned, it was to comprise the entire underdeveloped world.

Scope: Judging by the definition given to Fundamental Education, it is obvious that it was for both children and adults[92]. But it was found that children soon lose the benefits they derive from a few years of schooling if they were reabsorbed into an illiterate and apathetic society. A close link between child and adult education was found. School education was totally wasted unless the knowledge, skills and ideals acquired by the children were appreciated by their parents. If not, serious frustrations and conflicts arose. It was necessary to have active participation of adults and of linking the schools with adult education movement. Where little or no formal education existed, the fundamental education programme was directed in an informal and practical way towards adults. The techniques of adult education, which were naturally different from those found in schools, were used both to make the community aware of its problems and to bring forward natural leaders. The opportunities were provided for learning the skills and knowledge which made development and improvement possible. The content of a programme of fundamental education was naturally shaped by the needs and interests of the people whom it served. Among adults, work with women had special importance because they were considered of having an inferior status which could be remedied through education, secondly, it is women who had a great influence the early life of children and in home.

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[89] UNESCO, Preparatory Commission. Fundamental Education: A common ground for All Peoples, Paris, UNESCO, 1946, p.128-132

[90] Ibid, p.130.

[91] (Ibid 131

[92] "A large part of fundamental education is "adult education" in the strict sense that it is concerned with adults. It is, however in two directions, narrower than "adult education". In the first place it is concerned with only those adults who have either never been to school or have lost what they acquired at school by living in functionally illiterate society; secondly, it stops short of the "further education" of adults beyond the essential minimum of knowledge and skill required as a foundation for effective living." (Editorial, Fundamental and Adult Education, vol. IX, No.2, April 1957, p. 59.)

Means and Methods: It was decided that to achieve widespread and lasting results full use should be made of all possible educational agencies and the latest techniques for the teaching of adults should be used.

To meet diverse human needs, several forms of activities were developed in fundamental education programmes: adult literacy campaigns, agricultural and health training, co-operatives, organizations of community groups for cultural ends. An expanded schooling, community centres, library and museums and teaching methods which went beyond the teacher-pupil relationship and the media of mass-communication---the printed word, the film and the radio; all these methods were chosen to help people to help themselves.

The most pressing needs and problems of each community provided the starting point for the fundamental education programme. It could be endemic diseases of a village community or need of literacy among the under-privileged dwellers of industrial towns and cities.

Finally, as fundamental education was designed to achieve the 'social and economic progress', it was felt that education had to be integrated with economic development schemes. Local resources and co-operatives had to provide the frame-work and people had to work for self-sufficiency and their own development. The connection between fundamental education and standard of living was a very close one, because as education provided skills and techniques for economic progress; the raised standard of living gave meaning and permanence to educational endeavour.

The pilot project of the Marbial Valley, Haiti was one of the early efforts of UNESCO in the area of Fundamental Education. The project can be called both successful and a failure. Being one of the earliest efforts in Fundamental Education it had many shortcomings but altogether the experience proved very educative for UNESCO and its later projects. (This project is discussed in detail in Appendix IV).

3.4 U.N.TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE PROGRAMME

UNESCO's fundamental education programme entered into a new phase when United Nations started its Expanded programme of Technical Assistance. This programme has had tremendous influence in shaping the methods and has accelerated UNESCO's activities. It was initiated because of the importance which was beginning to be attached to basic education as a means of achieving economic development and to the whole effort to raise living standards and to bring new nations into the world society[93]. The planning of this programme made it clear that for full success and total development there needed to be closer coordination among specialized agencies of United Nations. It also became evident that these specialized agencies and the economic and social activities of UN itself, needed the fundamental education approach of UNESCO, that had become central of UNESCO's work with less economically developed countries. It was believed that the ability to read and write was a step towards a better life, including improved housing, health, handicrafts, better agriculture, nutrition, and greater individual and community capacity to develop roads and bridges, schools and clinics, cooperative markets and community centers. Literacy would to stimulate consciousness of human dignity and develop a sense of cultural and moral solidarity of mankind[94]. Acceptance of this concept of fundamental education and the decision that it would be coordinated with the effort of other United Nations agencies, made it also a part of the wider enterprise of 'community development'.

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[93] Laves et.al., op.cit. p148

[94] UNESCO, A Definition of Fundamental Education, Document UNESCO/ED/94, 1951 A note on the Relationship of Fundamental Education to Economic and Social Development, Document UNESCO/ED/95 1951, UNESCO, Fundamental Education, Description and Program, 1949, pp 7-48

The idea of a "total approach" to community problems developed slowly. The planning of this coordination was the responsibility of the United Nations while UNESCO was concerned with the education sector. To play its own part in this "total approach" in the most effective way UNESCO identified three main lines of activity;

1. determining what were the best methods and materials for fundamental education;
2. assistance to Member States in applying such methods;
3. and training specialists and field workers in their use, together with preparation of materials. [95]

SUITABLE METHODS AND MEDIA FOR FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION:

There could not have been a uniformity in methods or media in fundamental education for the multitudes of people living in widely separated parts of the world, speaking different languages and dialects and facing different problems altogether. To assist the Member States UNESCO worked out a few operations in sequence. First, exploratory studies were carried out to find out what methods were used in various parts of the world; then meetings were arranged, where specialists analyzed these practices and defined the problem; following this, field experiments were carried out to test the best way of applying these methods; and finally, the findings were published. For example, language was one of such problems which UNESCO faced in the very beginning. The question had become important in the initial stage of the Marbial Valley project in Haiti; an important question was what language was to be used in teaching. Any instruction is best done in the mother tongue. But often in many underdeveloped areas a vernacular is spoken by a relatively small group and has never been written down. In one African territory there were more than five hundred languages of which only four had written scripts. In a few other cases there was no national language and the newly independent nations were trying hard to establish a national language which was not the mother tongue of a large part of population. The problem of language was manifold; developing the alphabet for unwritten languages, outlining its structure, listing its vocabulary and then to produce primers, readers, and dictionary. Further, the situation was complicated by social and political considerations. But in spite of these problems, UNESCO called together a group of linguists to examine the problem of language in bringing education to illiterate and semi-illiterate population of the many parts of the world. Member states were informed and questioned for more information and asked for every possible help they could offer. Several experiments wre carried out and reports and findings on various approaches were published in UNESCO's 'Educational Studies and Documents'.

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[95] UNESCO, Report of the Director-General, Document 7C/3 p 81

After deciding what language had to be used in one particular area, the next question which arose pertained to the methods to be employed in reading and writing. There were two different approaches, one could either start with teaching alphabets or could begin by teaching phrases. In 1952, William Scot Gray was enlisted to examine this question and in 1956 a report was published, which reviewed the origin and development of various methods for teaching adults and children throughout the world. This report also discussed the advantages and limitations of these methods while appraising their effectiveness[96].

APPLICATION OF METHODS AND MEDIA

Regarding the application of these methods UNESCO found libraries and museums as useful instruments. In 1950, it held a seminar on public libraries at Malmo, Sweden, which stressed the need for public libraries in the less developed countries a factor which was emphasised again and again in subsequent seminars on public libraries at Sao Paulo, Brazil, in 1951, at Ibadan, Nigeria in 1953, and at Delhi, India, in 1955. The principles of fundamental education were applied practically in different geographical regions. After the Ibadan seminar, the West African Library Association was set up, and later the government established a regional library board. At Delhi an Asian Federation of Library Association was organized to serve as clearing house for library problems of that area. The Delhi library which was started in 1951 under the auspices of UNESCO and the Indian government, was a good example of the contribution which a library can make to fundamental and other education. It is a free public library and started its extension programme by depositing some books for neo-literates and for the persons who started taking literacy classes. Thus, for the first time in history of education and learning, a library tried to bridge the gap between the person who has just learned to read and the regular user of books. The library also produced easy-to-read material in vernacular languages for new literates. A mobile library van extended services to literacy compaigns throughout a wide area. During the first five years the contribution of UNESCO to this project was around $60,000. In 1956 the Indian authorities assumed the full responsibility for its direction and support, but the library is still associated to UNESCO as a project. A similar pilot library was founded in Medellin, Colombia, and later in 1957 in Eastern Nigeria.

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[96] William S. Gray, "The Teaching of Reading and Writing", (Chicago: UNESCO/Scott Foresman, 1956) The content of this book is briefly summarized in "Unesco Features", No. 190, 25th June 1956, pp 8-9

UNESCO also organised seminars on the educational roles of museums, at Brooklyn in 1952 and at Athens in 1954. Primarily, the attention was given to the needs of fundamental education, and a few museums were established at UNESCO's centers at Patzcuaro, Mexico, and Sirs-el-Layyan, Egypt, as experimental projects.

In 1953 a UNESCO seminar at Messina reviewed the problems involved in the use of visual aids for the educational purposes. Experiments showed that films, filmstrips, and posters and most of all radio proved useful allies in most situations. Radio schools were started in many centers. Five hundred thousand literacy charts and textbooks were distributed for these radio schools in 1955 in Sutatenza, Colombia, and it was estimated that 120,000 persons had learned to read and write through broadcasts of Radio Sutatenza[97]. UNESCO had published pamphlets for the promotion of audio-visual aids such as 'Visual Aids in Fundamental Education', 'The use of Mobile Cinema and Radio Vans in Fundamental Education', 'Radio in Fundamental Education in under-developed Countries'.

PREPARATION OF WORKERS AND MATERIAL:

In 1951, in cooperation with Latin American States, UNESCO set up its first international training and production center at Patzcuaro, Mexico. The main functions of the Regional Fundamental Education Training Center for Latin America (CREFL) were teacher training, production of educational material,technical and experimental studies, and practical assistance to nearby Tarascan villages.

By special resolution the 1951 session of the General Conference, the Patzcuaro center was to be made part of the proposed world-wide network of six fundamental education centers to be set up in Latin America, Equatorial Africa, the Middle East, India and the Far East (two centers were planned in Far East). But later the emphasis shifted to establishment of national centers, because it was realised that outside Latin America and the Arab States, no other regions of the world enjoyed the same language or culture and therefore an international center in these regions could not serve a group of countries.

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[97] 'UNESCO Features' no 192, 9 July 1956, p 2

By the time this decision was taken, UNESCO's second international center, the Arab States Fundamental Education Center (ASFEC) was set up in January 1953 at Sirs-el-Layyan, about forty-five miles from Cairo. The purpose of the center was similar to that of Patzcuaro---to train teachers and workers and develop material for the interest of adults in very simple language. The teaching staff included the representatives of four United Nations specialized agencies---FAO, ILO, WHO and the United Nations Technical Assistance Administration (UNTAA) as it was in Patzcuaro[98].

The field work in Sirs-el-Layyan was considered very successful and UNESCO realized that this was possible due to the cooperation and aid of the local people. It was claimed successful also because these programmes were bringing positive changes in the spirit of people. In an attempt to develop self-respect and consiousness of individual capacity and dignity there was a change in their fatalistic and submissive attitude regarding poverty, suffering and misery. People themselves wanted to be educated and the work there could be called revolutionary as it brought revolutionary modification in the psychological out look of people.

The effectiveness of these centres can be judged by the number of graduates produced and the use made by governments of the graduates. CREFAL at Patzuaro produced during its first four years (1952-55) around 227 students. Later these students were used in four ways: (1) to staff national fundamental training centres; (2) to direct fundamental education projects in the field; (3) to supervise rural education, including fundamental education for adults; and, (4) in the Capital to head sections on fundamental education in the Ministries of Education. At Sirs-el-Layyan 152 students were trained in the first three courses (1952-56). Of 69 students who returned to their countries 51 were working in position related to fundamental education[99].

The basic problem with regard to training in these centres, had been described as a choice between preparing students to work with illiterate rural people, or develop technical specialists in agriculture, health or home-economics, who could provide expert knowledge. CREFAL had centred on the first, and in students' home countries ministries were more interested in acquiring technical specialists. Even ministries of education did not know where to accomodate the "fundamental educator". Further, the idea that students should work in teams, while good in theory, did not work in practice. At the Centres the students were trained in groups of five, each with experience in specialized field, secondly, in order to develop international point of view the groups were made up of students from different countries. Thus, basically the idea was unpractical and was bound to be unsuccessful. As each trained fundamental educator had to return his home country with his specialized knowledge and it, as a result, deprived the team of one student with his mastery over a subject.

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[98] The students, mostly mature persons of thirty years, came to the Centre from nine different countries---Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Lebnon, Libya, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Yemen and Sudan.

[99] Laves and Thomson, op. cit., p.159

Although these two regional centres did not succeed in developing interdepartmental teams or in training any significant number of specialists whose previous experience had been outside the field of education, the Administrative Committee on Coordination (ACC), at its meeting in May 1956, concluded that the centres should be continued, provided a few adjustments were made by governments in choice and use of students and by centres in their training programmes.

Regarding the production of reading material, UNESCO's early efforts concentrated in the production of reading material for literacy campaigns and fundamental centres. Later the demand increased for pamphelets, books and periodicals in simple language to develop reading and writing skills of "new literates". In 1954, in the General-Conference at Montevideo it was decided that UNESCO would assist Member States in planning and producing informative and interesting reading material for the new literates. It was also suggested that this reading material had to be of varied nature so it could meet the demand of a large population. It was planned that this material would be based on literacy classics, folktales, on arts and crafts, as well as on agriculture, housing, citizenship, and human rights. UNESCO's main task was to enlist the services of experts; to encourage publishing agencies in different parts of the world (especially in the parts of Asia, Africa and Latin America); to issue reports on such aspects of publication as writing and testing, editing and distribution[100]. Such publications proved very helpful in carrying out projects later as they made the information of earlier experiences available.

In spite of the inadequacy of funds and the lack of experience in operating international programmes of aid, The Technical Assistance projects undertaken by UNESCO (to assist Member States at their request) yielded good results even in the 1950s. Though guided by purely philanthropic and humanitarian ideology these projects exercised great influence on local and regional, social and economic developments. The fundamental education, though it failed to stimulate proper response in Member States and fell short of expectations, was the most striking feature of the decade 1946-1956. The experience of these years clearly pointed to the catalytic role of UNESCO in the development which was to constitute the most positive achievement of the 1960s.

ILLITERACY AT MID-CENTURY:

One of the important achievements of this decade was the publication of the book "World Illiteracy at Mid-Century", by UNESCO[101]. As mentioned earlier UNESCO had been concerned, ever since its foundation, with the problem of widespread illiteracy among the world's peoples and measured for its elimination. The first ten years of its existence had been directed towards the promotion of fundamental education, particularly in educationally less advanced areas of the world. The publication of this book in 1955 was an answer to a basic need for assessing the educational development of countries. It was the compilation and analysis of statistical information regarding to education in all its aspects.

In the middle of the twentieth century, more than two-fifths of the world's adult population were illiterate. This adult illiteracy was more widespread in Asia and Africa and in the parts of middle and South America. Some ninetyseven countries of the world, where more than half of the adult population was illiterate, together accounted for about 90 per cent of the world's illiterates. This book by UNESCO analysed the statistics available from some 65 countries and revealed the desperate situation within most countries, of the extent of illiteracy between the male and female populations, between urban and rural areas, and among different ethnic groups of the population. It also discussed that in some countries the number of adult illiterates was actually increasing, even while the percentage of illiterates in total population might be decreasing. This was due to large proportion of children not attending school, who inevitably would swell the ranks of illiterates when they grow up.

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[100] UNESCO, Document 8C/ Resolutions, p. 35 (Res. IV.1.4.331.); and "Report of the Director General, 1955", p.54

[101] UNESCO, World Illiteracy at Mid-Century, 1955.

In this book the extension of education was closely related to the economic development of a country, as measured by the per-capita national income or the proportion of a country's financial resources devoted to education. It was shown that the extension of education and diffusion of literacy could also accelerate the development of country's economy. It was confirmed that there was a mutual relationship between the educational development of a country (as measured by enrollments and literacy rates) and its level of urban industrialization[102]. The book did not discuss how the developing countries could best use their resources and direct their efforts to improve the situation: though enough evidence, had been presented in form of relevent statistics to call for action on the part of national authorities in regard to their plans for educational, social and economic development. This book was first valuable document of UNESCO, from statistical point of view, dealing the world-wide problem of illiteracy.

3.5 THE DECLINE OF FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION

In the late 1940s, Fundamental Education was regarded as a special contribution of UNESCO to the social and economic progress of the underdeveloped regions of the world. Fundamental Education was considered a self sufficient programme for rural development, mainly through education supplemented by technical services in such fields as agriculture and health. Implicit in the idea was its effect on poverty and disease as well as on ignorance. Other technical services were to supplement it. But with the launching of the Technical Assistance Programme, the situation started to change, and when the United Nations community development projects started the situation was entirely reversed. By launching its Technical Assistance and Community development programmes the United Nations created a duplication of efforts and thus ensued competition and rivalry between the two organizations. The United Nations with larger human and financial resources was bound to be successful and UNESCO's Fundamental Education programme started going downhill. Both community development and fundamental education did work for human welfare but it is paradoxical that the birth of community development caused the decline of the latter. In 1955 the United Nations Administrative Committee on coordination subordinated Fundamental Education to community development, considering the former as one of the services to the latter. In 1956, even in UNESCO's Conference Fundamental Education was described as one of the measures of community development. And by the 10th General Conference a resolution was accepted to discontinue the term 'Fundamental Education'. This subordination of fundamental education to community development shows UNESCO's conceptual withdrawal from fundamental education after 10th Conference in 1958.

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[102] In chapters VIII to X the experience of some countries was cited showing the relationship between the decline of illiteracy and various other educational, social, and economic factors.

Moreover, UNESCO had always been pressed for money. UNESCO's pilot project in Haiti as well as the Organization's Plan for a world network of Fundamental Education Centers had to be abandoned mainly because of inadequacy of funds. The two Regional Centers, in Egypt and in Mexico were also short of money and for some years had been operating on a year-to-year basis. So at programme level too UNESCO tried to terminate its financial and even administrative obligations to its Regional Centers. Even in the 9th Conference many delegates questioned the wisdom of UNESCO for its continued responsibility for the centers. The delegates from the Soviet Union and India expressed concern that despite"all the efforts expanded, the results achieved over the last ten years had been inadequate."[103] This impatience was born of the fact that the Centers had become a heavy financial burden to the Organization by drawing some 30-40% of the regular budget of UNESCO's Department of Education. In the 10th Conference a few possibilities were explored for the financial relief but nothing really worked out and there was a deadlock regarding the future of these centers, and UNESCO was helpless.

The other factor which contributed to the decline of Fundamental Education was the birth of new independent states in Africa and Asia. When the discussion of Fundamental Education was carried out in the Councils of UNESCO most of these nations were under European rule. The new leaders did not share the optimism and idealism of former European rulers that fundamental education could build 'a new social order'. For instance, the new African States preferred vocational secondary education to fundamental basic education. This was demonsrated at the UNESCO sponsored Conference of African States for the Development of Education in Africa held at Addis Ababa in May 1961. Thus an item of prime priority became an item totally ignored in a few places and secondary in some. And all this happened within fifteen years. Countries, like those in Africa, for which it was mainly designed, abandoned it first.

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[103] UNESCO, Records of the General Conference, 9th Session: Proceedings, Paris, Unesco 1958, pp. 449-452.

The main cause of the lost faith in Fundamental Education was the time itself, the pace of change, the period between 1945 to early sixties made the world different.

> If peace and international cooperation were the slogans of the post war years, then the cold war and international rivalry are the fate of the early 1960s. And if it was the idealism of the period that prompted the delegates to the Preparatory Commission to regard Fundamental Education as a Priority One project, it was equally the harsh realities of the period that prompted the Addis Ababa Conference to regard education as an "economic investment" rather than the tool for building the defences of peace.[104]

Thus, education came out of the sphere of philanthropic, humanitarian domain of 'human rights' and entered into the realm where it was regarded as the producer of 'human resources'.

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[104] Mulugeta Wadajo, An Analysis of UNESCO's Concept and Program of Fundamental Education, Unpublished Thesis, Teachers' College, Columbia University, 1963,

CHAPTER IV

CHANGE AND GROWTH (1959-1969)

Change has always been a characteristic feature of human history. Usually this change is so slow and gradual that mankind has no problem to adapt itself accordingly. But during the decade after the World War II, the world had experienced more momentous upheavals than any previous time. Now mankind confronted the complexities of changes which came in series and with devastating speed. The rapid liquidation of colonialism led to the emergence of many new nations in the political field which were hard pressed by aspirations for social and economic change within a relatively short period. The widening gap between the rich and the poor nations had increased, inequalities were growing with such a pace that they could threaten world peace and order.

At the beginning of the sixties the United Nations called for a period of ten years to be recognised as the 'development decade'. Among the problems which made the task of development urgent and massive were the increase in the absolute number of illiterates, the population explosion, increasing gulf between the rich and the poor countries and disappointing efforts of the industrialized nations in this connection, and the armaments race.

In the 'First Decade', the word 'development' was defined as 'growth plus social, cultural and economic change', but the United Nations, in this decade, concentrated on economic development only, which was seen essentially as the growth in the gross national product, at an annual rate of 5%, which the developing countries tried to realize. The experiments and results indicate that many developing countries succeeded in achieving the objective and a few even outdid it by increasing the national product. Such a success in itself did not mean that these countries could meet the United Nations' definition of development or succeeded in self-development. On the contrary many traits of under-development emerged, and there were many unwanted trends that were not envisaged beforehand. M. A. ElGhannam in his article 'Development, Human Resources and Adult Education', mentions a few important ones:

The relatively high rate of annual growth of population, 3%, which made the growth of increase per capita much less than the rate of gross product growth; it also made the rate of growth of per capita share of food product but marginal (2%-4%).

1. The increase of the difference in income coinciding with the unfairness in their distribution.
2. The rise of unemployment, especially among the youth, at a time when shortage in technical skills came into sight.
3. The migration of inhabitants from the country into the city, and the latters' inability to assimilate them.
4. The increase of foreign debt and the deficit in the balance of payment.[105]

This development decade launched in 1961 witnessed important changes and new problems emerged bearing on the role and responsibility of UNESCO. There was considerable increase in the regular budget, and substantial extra-budgetary resources were made available to UNESCO by the United Nations Development Programme, while further large sums in support of its activities were spent by UNICEF, the World Food Programme and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development.

Despite the shortage of available resources and inadequacies in co-operation, the first decade had some definite results regarding education. The role of primary education for all had been given high priority. The regional Conference of Ministers of education organised by UNESCO at Karachi (1960), Addis Ababa (1961) and Santiago (1962) attempted for the first time long term targets and goals for education[106]. In this period of growing pressures there was recession of resources, especially human resources, and thus retarded the application of the most precious resources for development[107]. In this situation UNESCO's contribution to development by enriching human resources became really meaningful. Education was considered a major instrument for the political, social, cultural and economic modernization of the developing world in the 1950s and 1960s. Political leaders and educational planners were of the opinion that a well supported and easily accessible educational system was an efficient means to make people politically and socially conscious, and, active participants in nations building. Further, the education sector was enthusiastically, often simplistically, supported as the major supplier of skills for the economy. The more optimistic observers expected that education would, of itself, stimulate the creation of jobs and thus generate economic development.

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[105] M.A. El Ghannam, 'Development. Human Resources and Adult Education' in 'Adult Education and development with special Reference to Arab States' 1975, p 264-265.

[106] These plans were revised and developed further at subsequent regional conferences held at Bangkok (1965), Buenos Aires (1966) and Nairobi(1968)

[107] In the previous decade the emphasis was on physical capital. "But it was soon realized that physical capital without human knowledge was not productive (It proved productive in Japan and Europe (Marshall Plan) because these countries had people with the knowledge necessary to make it productive). Similar investment in Indonesia and Burma, which lacked the engineers and managers and technicians of the richer countries, failed to produce the similar results. So the economists discovered---rather rediscovered---the importance of complementary human factors, of 'investment in human resources'.

Manpower planners were to devise the strategies by which new states could, in the shortest possible time, amass the human capital--necessary to take off into modernity." Ronald Dore, The Diploma Disease. Education. Qualification and Development. London, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., 1976, p 1.

It was due to UNESCO's efforts that education as a high-yield investment gained wide recognition. Educational expenditure on per capita increased throughout the world. In some developing countries the rate of increase of educational outlay was higher than that of GNP. Better planning of education in relation to other sectors of economy and social change have been widely accepted. UNESCO's programmes laid stress on the training of the scientists and technicians and the installation of infrastructures for science and technology in developing countries. Important advancements were made by the mass media on the technical level[101].

4.1 THE MONTREAL CONFERENCE: ADULT EDUCATION IN A CHANGING WORLD

In 1960 another world conference was convened by UNESCO at Montreal on the theme of 'Adult Education in a Changing World'. In the 1940s and 1950s a new political map of the world had emerged which showed many new independent 'third world' states. Most of these countries were representated at Montreal Conference. These countries were facing many social, economic, political and educational problems, worst was the problem of adult illiteracy (60%-90%), which made adult education one of the more important and needed branches of education. Among fifty one countries represented from the Third World eight were from Africa ten from Asia and eight from Latin America. Russia, Byelorussia and Ukraine represented the Soviet bloc and Czechoslovakia, Rumania and Hungary represented other socialist countries. There were forty nine international non-governmental organisations while only twenty-one (mainly from

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[101] There remained the areas of stagnation which were to be dealt in the Second Decade of Development. This decade did not produce many appreciable quantitative results, but it helped a lot in setting up a programme for the Second Development Decade, which aimed at more than merely realizing the growth in the gross national product (6% annually). It tried to cover objectives and trends, pertaining to social justice, providing the masses of people with a better life, expanding the opportunities and having more concern about education, training and retraining.

Western European countries) were present at Elsinore Conference. At Montreal, there were only thirty three delegates, observers and advisors from Western Europe out of one hundred and seventeen accredited representatives of Member States of UNESCO.

4.1.1 CHANGING CONCEPT OF ADULT EDUCATION

Although, after a decade, adult education was still difficult to define, adult educators, throughout the world, were more in agreement about the sort of things it should include or what its nature should be. There was a change in emphasis, adult education was no longer seen simply as 'continuation' of education after formal school but as a part of a 'continuous' educational process. Hutchinson himself agreed that the definition he used in 1949 was 'too heavily impregnated with a specifically British point of view'[109], to have value in an international context. He revised his interpretation and saw adult education as---'organized opportunities for men and women to enlarge and interpret their own living experience.' [110]

With the broader concept, the term 'adult education' was no longer being treated as having different meanings in different areas of the world. It was recognized as an all embracing term covering all organized provision for the education of the adults, whatever the level and whatever the motivation and purposes. The term was broad enough to include a wide range of distinct but related fields of 'liberal education', 'workers' education', 'higher education of adults', 'literacy teaching', 'fundamental education', 'vocational training' etc.

This change in concept led to another factor that education should be taken as a lifelong process, which demands more conscious public planning for adult education.

4.1.2 LIFELONG EDUCATION

This concept of lifelong education was not something new in 1960; neither was it unknown during the time of 1949 Elsinore Conference. The concept had taken birth much earlier in Great Britain's '1919 Report', when education was considered a permanent national necessity, which should be both universal and lifelong. Prof. Robert

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[109] A.S.M.Hely 'New Trends in Adult Education' op.cit., p. 61.

[110] E.M.Hutchinson, The Nature and Role of Adult Education, in Fundamental and Adult Education, vol 10 (1958) no. 3, Paris, UNESCO, p. 100.

Peers wrote in 1934:

> All education must be a process of adjustments of the individual to the world in which he lives. But since his world is constantly changing, and since he himself is one of the potential agents of change, this adjustment must be a continuous process and not something which is accomplished once and for all during the years of childhood and adolescence.[111]

Though mentioned occasionally since then, this idea of permanent or lifelong education did not have great influence on the thoughts of those concerned with education. Even in 1960, Joseph Barbag pointed out that the consciousness of the need for lifelong education was far from wide spread. He suggested that this idea was ,

> now being proposed---and rightly so---as a means of enabling people, in the difficult and complicated conditions of contemporary society, to deal more effectively with their personal and social problems. But the consciousness of the need to continue the education of man throughout his entire lifetime is not wide spread, and even less wide spread are examples of its fulfilment.[112]

So until 1960, it was strange to note that this concept of lifelong education had little effect upon the educational practices, both pre-adult and adult. Adult education was still considered 'preparation for life', another educational stage, rather than a part of the whole lifelong process of education. Though adult educators were more conscious of this process yet they were concerned with those educational activities only, which started after an education called 'preparation for life'. 'Continuing education', to these educators was the continuation of education after formal schooling, whereas they should have realized that lifelong education is not 'continuing education' but 'continuous education' and that all aspects of education should be planned as a whole. An adult should educate himself continuously as he meets the challenges of life.

This new vision was accepted by UNESCO and was sharpened by the fresh outlook that lifelong education meant re-examination of the whole educational system. The view of education as a 'preparation for life' was on the retreat before the Montreal Conference and its conception as a life-long process was gaining ground. Dr. J. R. Kidd puts it like:

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[111] Robert Peers, 'Adult Educatin in Practice'; London, Macmillan and Co., 1934, p 7-8.
[112] J. Barbag, Is There Really a Crisis in Adult Education in Fundamental and Adult Education, vol 12, 1960, no. 3, p 124, UNESCO, Paris.

> Continuing education is no mirage in the desert; it is no dream of a religious prophet. Hard-headed, unsentimental engineers, doctors, lawyers, manufacturers, now understand that they must contiue to study and learn just to keep up with the demands of their calling, as well as to accept the obligations of public responsibility. [113]

At the Montreal Conference it was decided to recommend to all the governments 'the acceptance of adult education as an essential and integral part of the normal education system, and the integration of adult education within the framework an educational system based upon the concept of continuing and continuous education.' So within a broad framework of adult education it was possible to diminish any existing cultural, racial or political differencess among the different countries and establish communication and understanding. The Montreal Conference stressed the international aspect of the greatly 'increased significance of adult education in a rapidly changing world, and the obligation incumbent on Member States to give practical recognition to this fact.'

4.1.3 ROLE OF ADULT EDUCATION

Commission 1 of the Montreal Conference in its report, drew attention to an unprecedented acceleration in the rate of change during the past eleven years. These changes had to be taken into account while setting the role of adult education because these changes were going to affect adult education in all the countries in one way or the other[114]. These changes were listed as follows:

1. Technological developments; The weakening or even disappearance of traditional cultures, especially in developing countries, suddenly exposed to urbanization and industrialization;
2. The growth of nationalism as a powerful operative ideal and the emergence of new national states;
3. The emergence of large power blocs, the political division of the much of the world, the immense destructive forces which these blocs now command and a wide spread fear of nuclear war;
4. The extent to which technological, economic, social and cultural developments are emphasizing the essential unity of mankind and the increased interdependence of the countries of the world, inspite of the political divisions which exist;
5. The changing position of women in society, and of family as an institution

It was well recognized in the Conference that a rapid change is a permanent feature of our environment and adults must be prepared to accept and live with it. If these adults are left with the changes with which they are not familiar they are likely to become confused and resentful. Adult education must help them to understand the nature of change and to recognize the extent to which they themselves can shape and control its effects. As W.C.Hallenbeck wrote;

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[113] J.R.Kidd "The Goals of Adult Education" in Fundamental and Adult Education, vol 12, 1960, no. 3, UNESCO, p 115.

[114] Although the aims and tasks set by Elsinore Conference were still important and had their value.

> No matter how effective and contemporary may be it (formal education) can never fully prepare youths to meet the world as it will be when they are adults. The fundamental education of adults is to keep balance between people and circumstances in a changing world. One of the axioms of civilization, democracy and intelligence is that people can control their destinies. this becomes possible only when people can forsee and direct the changes which are the results of their material and social inventions.[115]

Industrialization is a forceful medium of change and to meet its challenges one has got to be well equipped with knowledge and information, which can be provided by adult education more adequately. [116]

The problem of the 'generation gap' also calls for patience and understanding and a willingness for adjustment on the part of adults. Therefore it was important to recognize that, the purpose and methods of youth education and the same purposes of adult education will lead to better adjustment between the two generations. The delegates at the Montreal Conference recognized that the pulse of change was felt more rapidly by youths but they often rejected the existing pattern of life without rationale and without having the experience and maturity which would enable them to replace the rejected pattern with something stable. Therefore the Commission suggested that the same principles which guide the education of young people should guide adult education.

Special attention was given to the educational needs of women. This concern was born of the fact that in many countries (mostly in developing countries), women represented politically, economically and educationally an underprivileged group within the community. The delegates at the Montreal Conference felt that the special needs of women were made more urgent by the impact of rapid changes and they need help through adult education to learn, to understand and to fit into the new order of things. In speaking of 'civic and social education' the commission again stressed the importance of education for women:

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[115] W.C.Hallenbeck: The Function and Place of Adult Education in American Society, in Handbook of Adult Education in the United States, Chicago, Adult Education Association of USA 1960 p 30-31.

[116] Industrialization accelerates the need of adult education, it was realized in Elsinore and Montreal conference both, but the context was different. In the Elsinore conference, industrialization was condisered in the background of industrialized and advanced countries, which produced leisure and adult education had to cope with increasing leisure. Considered in the context of developing countries industrialization meant need of labour and more manpower. Here the responsibility of adult education became the training and retraining of active adult population, and supply adequate manpower to the developing industries.

> The smallest and the the most natural social unit is the family. Education begins at home. In the family the part played by the mother is of inestimable influence; she is, indeed, an educator, and her particular needs, in this role must be a matter of concern for adult education. This is not to suggest that this is necessarily her role which she must play, and which, if it is to be promoted effectively in our complex modern world, requires something more than maternal instinct and mother wit.[117]

For the members of Montreal Conference it was clear that adult education has a major responsibility to create in the minds of people a picture of the world which exists today, as it is. They must become more conscious of themselves as citizens of the world as well as the citizens of their own nations. They should realize that the solution of problems within their own countries are to solve rather than complicate, the problems facing the world as a whole. But even in the 'oneness' of the whole world order 'moral disunity' was recognized. It was accepted that there is multiplicity of religions, ideologies and nationalities, each with different interpretations of values and different formulae of adjustment to new conditions. So one of the task of adult education was to help adults throughout the world to realize that one world does not necessarily mean a world state, a world government or single world religion, ideology or culture--that a sense of unity in diversity may be the answer to get complete uniformity.The Montreal Conference was concerned with the role of adult education in the attempt to retain, within the framework of one world, the real values of differing traditional cultures, religious and social customs in the countries entering the stage of economic development[118].

In the draft declarations of the UNESCO Conference on Adult Education the relation between the developed and developing countries as members of one world was stated strongly. It was commented that the gap between the industrialized and non-industrialized countries was increasing, inspite of the sustained efforts on the part of developing countries and international organizations to bridge the gap. It was a world problem and it was difficult to justify a situation in which one-third of the world were getting richer while two-thirds of the world remained sunk deep in poverty. The delegates at Montreal were aware of this fact and felt that the task of adult education was to see that industrially advanced countries had the knowledge on which understanding could be based and the wisest decisions made. The emergence of new national states added to the complexities of international relationships Commission 1 of the UNESCO Conference noted

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[117] Second World Conferences on Adult Education, Report, p 11 UNESCO.
[118] A.S.M. Hely, op.cit., pp 81-82.

> In today's world, international understanding, mutual sympathy and tolerance of different point of views are more important than ever before. Adult education is neede to promote this understanding to combat propoganda, whereby it is impaired, and to put every adult in the way of arriving at the truth. [119]

For the developing countries the implications in terms of adult education were even more important. Their desire to close the gap among themselves and advanced industrial powers depended a lot upon education. These countries not only had to establish as rapidly as possible, an educational system for the young, but had to provide educational facilities for the adults who would be responsible for carrying through the in-coming changes brought in by industrialization and modernization. Effort to overcome adult illiteracy was regarded a task of foremost importance. The general consensus at Montreal was that illiteracy any where in the world was no longer acceptable. The delegates recommended that a special fund be created under the control of UNESCO to be used specifically for an all out attack on illiteracy wherever it still existed.

In this Conference of 1960 a great need was felt to blend vocational and liberal education under adult education. It was observed that there had been a tendency to ignore professional education of adults, whereas non-vocational education of adults, which had marginal value, fought for recognition and support. Institutions of technical and vocational education associated themselves with pre-adult education rather than the education of adults. Technological change had its benefits but had created a few problems too, i.e. the problem of automation, unemployment, vocational instability and visible changes in the vocational pattern of the economy. This complicated situation created unemployment or underemployment for unskilled or semi-skilled labourers, while demands for skilled or highly skilled labour increased. This situation can only be overcome by education and retraining, likewise other problems created by technological change can be overcome once their nature is understood. The tasks of adult education in the context of vocational education, as seen by the delegates at the Montreal Conference were:

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[119] UNESCO Report, op.cit. p 10.

1. to help men and women understand the factors behind the instability of vocational life and to help them to acquire attitudes and values based on flexibility and a willingness to change, and
2. to make provision of retraining of adults, which takes into account their needs, abilities and interests, and also the new type of opportunities which are opening up.

Here, the first function represented the task of general adult education while the second represented the special field of technical and vocational education of adults. Thus, they demanded the unification of vocational and non-vocational aspects of education and showed a need for a removal of separation between the two. Hely, in his book points out that the view of the delegates at Montreal Conference on the question of vocational and technical education were the product of a general debate on the nature and role of adult education in previous years, particularly in relation to the problems of reconciling liberal and cultural values with the technical and special skills needed in contemporary society.

4.1.4 THE AREAS OF DISSATISFACTION DISCUSSED AT MONTREAL

In spite of the achievements in the past decade it was felt that:

1. UNESCO was devoting too small a proportion of its total budget to adult education even if the term 'adult education' was interpreted as loosely as possible;
2. that UNESCO's efforts in adult education were too dispersed and un coordinated to be fully effective; and
3. that the consultative machinery for adult education established at Elsinore was no longer appropriate to the task. It was also felt that the existing machinery for advice and consultation was not altogether satisfactory, and some thought was given to the idea of creating a World Association of Adult Education.

A.S.M. Hely points out that the discussion at the Montreal Conference revealed that the dissatisfactions were based not upon an inherent weakness in UNESCO's structure and policy but upon the confusion in the adult education movement itself. It was the adult education movement through its leaders at Elsinore and elsewhere which had given birth to UNESCO's policy in adult education. UNESCO has followed their advice and recommendations blindly. If there was certain confusion in purpose and principle, in policy and practice, it was due to the confusion which existed within international adult education movement itself.

So, it was felt that in future it was necessary to have

1. better budgetary provision and a higher status for adult education within UNESCO; and
2. a strengthening of Consultative Committee for adult education, providing for a permanent nucleus of members drawn from non-governmental organizations directly concerned with adult education and for meetings at definite and regular intervals

Commision 3 and its special drafting sub-committee considered these two related points of view and examined the objectives implicit in any attempt to develop more effective contacts in adult education . The main objectives identified were,

1. To strengthen UNESCO in carrying out its major purposes, such as attempt to eradicate illiteracy, to establish a world clearing house for education and to promote adult education throughout the world.
2. To facilitate regional action (seminar and courses etc.) which contribute to UNESCO's purposes as a world education
3. To increase the possibilities of personal contacts between people directly responsible for the provision of adult education.
4. To develop mutual understanding by encouraging people from more than one country, and to support the development of new centres as necessary.
5. To increase the international usefulness and circulation of publications, audio-visual material, etc., produced by UNESCO, by public and private agencies in Member States and by international non-governmental organizations.[120]

The Commission recommended that the Consultative Committee should be reorganized and strengthened, rather than replaced.

4.1.5 STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

In the Conference it was accepted that if education is to be treated as a continuous lifelong process then adult education would be concerned with the educational needs of all adults whether they had completed the formal schooling or not. Adults, with their experience and intellectual capacity and educational interests, would have varying needs and no single institution could hope to deal adequately with all the educational requirements of the adult population within any given community. Adult education was characterized by a multiplicity of institutions and organizations to meet the needs of adults at different levels. Efforts were carried out in an organized manner by governments, by informal educational associations, by social organizations, and by voluntary organizations and for effective results in adult education a combination of these efforts was considered desirable.

At the Montreal Conference there was also a discussion on the role voluntary organizations should play in the field of adult education. Commission 3 at the Conference recognized the fact that voluntary organizations provided a freedom and flexibility to adult education so that it became more than a mere service. There was a common agreement over the thesis that voluntary organizations played and would continue to play, an important part in adult education.

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[120] World Conference on Adult Education, Montreal, 1960, op.cit., p 26.

One of the interesting trends at the Montreal Conference was the increased stress placed upon the need for greater involvement of schools, Universities and teachers in the work of adult education. The report states that

> We entrust teachers with the education of the whole child (vocational, aesthetic, cultural and human values) . Teachers do work with adults. With training they could do it better, and more teachers could be involved. Schools have resources which should be available to adults as well as to the children.[121]

The advantages of making full use of the school and teaching profession in adult education were fully stressed---particularly at present stage of development especially in the Third World countries. Schools were strategically placed in relation to the community and their building, a sizeable capital investment belonging to the community, should be available not only to the children during the day but to the adults in evening too (and during weekends and vacation period). The same should apply to teaching equipments which could be used for the whole community in this way.

Universities, the specialized institutions of higher learning, remained remote from the market place, and they hardly seemed to be the institutions to make any contribution in adult education. But this was not true. As adult education expanded, the number of people entering it as a profession increased, and the need for professional training became more pressing. In both professional training of adults and in research which provided the basis of an academic discipline the University had a big role to play.

4.1.6 FORMS AND METHODS OF ADULT EDUCATION

Much of attention at Montreal Conference was paid to the scope and nature of adult education and efforts were devoted at indirectly to point out its new tasks and making positive proposals for its organization both at national and international level. But somehow recommendations made in connection with teaching methods in adult education did not reveal anything new.

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[121] UNESCO Report, op.cit. p 19.

Still, the delegates at Montreal were aware that methods of education need to be consciously devised in relation to:

1. the stage of the society existing in a particular country at a given time, and
2. the adult education institutions or organizations which had been established on the basis of a clear understanding of social purposes and existing social norms in such countries.

In the report of Commission 2 it was stated that

> The methods used in adult education are extremely varied; they are designed to meet the needs and aspirations of widely differing societies..... Looking beyond specific experiments suited to particular environment and special circumstances, the Conference gave its attention to methods likely to be of general interest and applicable to many, if not all types of society." [122]

Commission 2 laid particular emphasis upon the need for teaching methods which involved the active rather than passive participation of adult learners. Secondly, they emphasised the need to harness the mass media for success.

Hely concludes the achievement of the Montreal Conference in the words:

> The confusion of definition which had handicapped communication at the international level had been overcome. UNESCO had recognised its administrative structure to ensure a more co-ordinated and integrated policy in adult education. The strengthening of the machinery for international consultation and co-operation through the reorganization of the consultative Committee on Adult Education would be a further factor clearing the way for the rapid development of the adult education movement at the world level. If adult education leaders and organizations emerged as a clearly defined group at Elsimore, 11 years later this group was in the position to state its intentions, its objectives and its needs with greater clarity and force.[123]

4.2 DEVELOPMENT SINCE THE MONTREAL CONFERENCE

For some years before 1960, the UNESCO Secretariat was becoming conscious of underlying weaknesses of the administrative structure and the programme of adult education and there had been a gradual change in the direction of both programme and policy. Before the Montreal Conference, the administrative structure of adult education was already reorganized and all the sections dealing with the education of the adults were brought within the framework of a single division, titled 'out-of-school education'. Since the Montreal Conference, this section has been given the name 'Adult Education and Youth Activities' and a library was included. The International Committee for the Advancement of Adult Education was established which was to meet every two years. All these attempts represented a big step forward towards a closer co-ordination and integration of UNESCO's efforts in the field of adult education. All activities in all the several divisions of UNESCO which were related to the education of men and women were brought into some coherence. Before 1960, the adult education division was a small office attached to the Education Department of UNESCO; now it had a direct relationship with all the aspects of adult education, both at headquarters and in the field.

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[122] Montreal Conference, Report, p 14.
[123] Hely, op.cit. p. 100

In 1964, at the General Conference, representatives of almost every Member State approved and accepted adult education as a necessary part of national programmes of education ' so that all men and women throughout their lives, may have opportunities for pursuing education conducive alike to their individual advancement and to their active participation in civic life and in the social and economic developments of their country.'

In general, after the Montreal conference, there was improvement in technology, adoption of novel methods and techniques of communication in adult education. There was an increase in the number of programmes for rural population, for women and less-schooled or insufficiently schooled youth. Many retraining courses were directed toward labours and managerial officials. Population education was also introduced during this period as apart of adult education.

During the 1960s, UNESCO was engaged in two major activities and both were foreshadowed at the Montreal Conference. One was the initiation of the World Literacy Campaign and development and acceptance of the concept of 'Lifelong Education' or 'Education Permanente'. Education Permanante was implicit in the declaration and other recommendations of the Conference, but its concept was not applied or accepted immediately, and the first major discussion of the concept came in 1965, during the third session of the International Committee for the Advancement of Adult Education. In the next decade the concept was discussed at national meetings in more than fifty countries by most of the major international organizations concerned with education and by the

General Council of UNESCO. [124].

4.2.1 WORLD CAMPAIGN AGAINST ILLITERACY

At Montreal it was proposed that an international strategy should be adopted " for the specific purpose of eliminating illiteracy in the developing and newly independent countries." A year later, the General Conference of UNESCO called for a review of : " The eradication of mass illiteracy throughout the world with the object of working out concrete and effective measures at international and national levels for such eradication."

The International Committee for the Advancement of Adult Education gave particular attention to literacy in its meetings during 1961 and 1963. Later a Committee of Experts on literacy was appointed for more detailed study. Recommendations of the latter Committee plus the experiences gained by UNESCO in the field and other intergovernmental agencies were developed into a series of proposals, which were discussed thoroughly at the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1963. Mr. Rene Maheu, the Director-General of UNESCO presented a "World Campaign for Universal Literacy" report to the Assembly and expressed the hope that the experimental programme would make it possible to provide valuable information on the relationship of literacy with social and economic development; to ensure that the programme will make considerable impact on economic development during the Development Decade in the countries where the projects will be conducted; and to prepare for a way for an eventual World Campaign for the eradication of Mass Illiteracy[125]. There was quite an enthusiastic response to the report and eighty countries took part in active discussion.

On the basis of these deliberations, the General Assembly unanimously adopted a resolution inviting "Member States in whose territories illiteracy is still widespread, to accord appropriate priority to the eradication of illiteracy within their over all development plans;" and inviting those states, "in whose territories mass illiteracy is no longer a major problem, to contribute technical and/or financial assistance for the benefit of all in those countries where it is widespread." The General Assembly also invited, "the Secretary-General of the United Nations, in collaboration with the Director-General of

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[124] This concept of lifelong education has been discussed in detail in the next Chapter

[125] Report of the Secretary General on the World Campaign for Universal Literacy, New York, United Nations, 1964 (A/5830).

UNESCO, the Managing Director of the Special Fund, the Executive Chairman of the Technical Assistance Board and the President of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development and its affiliates, to explore ways and means of supporting national efforts for the eradication of illiteracy through a world campaign and any other measures, if appropriate, of international co-operation and assistance, both non-financial and financial."

It is true that the problem of illiteracy was considered a world problem but there were areas in which it is more accute than in others. Regional study and planning was needed also.

First were the Regional Economic Commissions of the United Nations. At Addis Ababa, at its sixth session, in 1964, the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa expressed the opinion that, mass illiteracy is a grave handicap to social and economic development. It also recommended that the governments should include in their national plans of education and within the framework of their over all educational development plans, provision for adult literacy and adult education programmes which will supplement measures for raising school enrollment and will achieve rapidly mass literacy. The United Nations Commission for Asia and Far East, meeting at Teheran in 1964, declared that "education is a key factor of economic growth and social progress and, in particular, that a mass extension of literacy is a prerequisite for the successful implementation of national plans for economic development."[126]

Similar opinions were formed in several UNESCO conferences. In 1964, an important conference for the many African Nations was convened by UNESCO at Abidjan. In these conference 35 African countries were represented by 50 persons, 10 representatives came from international non-governmental organizations and 13 observers from non-African states. The Conference urged a high priority be accorded to literacy and adult education programmes, in view of the important part which they play in promoting the economic and social development of each country. A Conference of Arab National Commissions for UNESCO, held at Algiers in 1964, was of the same opinion that illiteracy and its prevalence throughout the world constitutes an obstacle to social and economic progress in Arab countries and in the world at large.

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[126] A number of special organizations were formed in the decade of the sixties which have done valuable work to combat illiteracy. Among these were the Arab Regional Literacy Organization (ARLO), formed in 1966; the Regional Centre for Adult Education (CREA) in Venezuela, which gave technical assistance on request to other countries of Latin America; the Ibero-American Bureau of Education Madrid; the International Institute for Adult Literacy Methods; in Teheran (Iran), established by an agreement between UNESCO and the Government of Iran in 1968. The two regional Centres for Training for Community Development in the Arab States (ASFEC) and Latin America (CREFAL), established by UNESCO with support of the United Nations in 1952 and 1950 respectively, were transformed in 1969 into Regional Centres for Functional Literacy in Rural Zones, and played an important role in providing technical services of research, training, and production of media to the national literacy programmes in their respective regions.

From these meetings a strategy was emerging, a strategy not only for each country, but for the 'grand design' on a world scale. The strategy included a 'selective approach', the notion of stages of development and the organization of a pool of international aid[127]. These ideas emerge clearly from the recommendations of the Expert Committee and of the General Conference of UNESCO in 1964, where the delegates from all the countries supported UNESCO to declare its readiness to promote and support such a campaign and decided to initiate in 1966 a five year experimental world literacy programme designed to pave the way for the eventual execution of a world campaign in this field.

In 1965, a World Congress of Ministers of Education on the Eradication of Illiteracy was held at Teheran. This Conference brought together most of the experience developed in the past few years. The statistics gathered by UNESCO pointed out two essential facts:

1. The world contains an enoromous number of adult illiterates (700,000,000 in the middle of the present century), and
2. There is an increase in the absolute number of adult illiterates despite their relative decrease. [128]

The percentage of illiterates throughout the world had only slightly diminished. It was in the range of 40-45% in 1950, and it was still 38-43% in 1962. In each continent the percentage was as is shown in the table 3:

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[127] Functional Literacy and International Development, Pub. Canadian National Commission for UNESCO, p 9

[128] Literacy as a Factor in Development, Paris, July 30, 1965 p 8-9.

The Percentage of Illiteracy, in 1950 and 1962 in Differnt Regions

REGION	1950 (%)	1962 (%)
Africa	80-85	78-84
America	20-21	18-20
Arab States	82-87	78-82
Asia & Oceanaia	67-71	53-57
Europe & USSR	6-10	3-7

For 1962, the adult illiteracy rate for men and women (in percentage), and the total number of illiteracy adults (in thr age group 15-40) is shown below:

REGION	Adult Illiteracy Rate (in percentage)		Number of illiterate Adults (in million)
	Men	Women	
Africa	69	87	94
America	17	18	34
Arab States	75	88	-
Asia	41	61	243
Europe	2	5	9

TABLE 3: Illiteracy in 1962 in Different Regions.

Source : Literacy as a factor in Development, UNESCO. 1965, p. 9-10.

4.2.2 LITERACY AND DEVELOPMENT

These figures show that the map of illiteracy also coincides with that of underdevelopment. Illiteracy was regarded as both the cause and effect of underdevelopment. In the Teheran Conference it was observed that, illiteracy was an outcome of a complex series of economic and social factors, and not simply educational ones. Illiteracy, which was high in the less-developed countries and was gaining ground despite all efforts, because of the combination of accelerated population growth and the inadequacy of educational network. It was realised that illiteracy was widening the gap between the developed countries, which were making extremely rapid progress, and the countries that were behind-hand.

This Conference like its preceding ones firmly believed that adult education and functional literacy were directly related to development. For these underdeveloped countries it was more difficult to fight against the gigantic problem of illiteracy with limited financial resources[129]. The Teheran Coference pointed out that continuing adult education was one of the prerequisites of social progress. Literacy for its own sake was not worth the effort; but functional literacy instruction, viewed as an inseparable part of the progress of adult education, was a normal factor in development.

Literacy and Economic Development

Literacy--especially selective work oriented literacy--is generally expected to produce several economic benefits. Literacy has a direct bearing on economic and social progress of any society [130]

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[129] "For underdevelopment is often an insuperable obstacle to the eradication of illiteracy, whereas such eradication; by adding written culture to oral culture, would facilitate the transition from a subsistance economy to a market economy and the exploitation of resources. Illiteracy is first and foremost the result of being behind-hand in solving economic and social problems."From Literacy as a Factor in Development, op.cit, p.5.

[130] Bowman and Anderson in their study (Bowman Mary J. and Anderson C.A. Concerning the Role of Education in Development--"Readings in Economics of Education.UNESCO. Paris 1968) explained the relation between literacy and economic development studying the problem with reference to 83 countries. They found that countries with more than 90% rate of literacy were very rich, while 32 countries with literacy rate below 40% were poor with per capita income less than US $250 in 1955. But this individual relationship is perhaps one of circular rather than linear causality, each of these being in turn both cause and effect. Undoubtedly, there is parallelism between the graphs for per capita national income and literacy rates in a given country.

According to Scultz (T. Scultz Transforming Traditional Agriculture. 1970 p. 202) literacy has "a pervasive value in reducing costs and in improving the productivity of the economy." Another international study of H.H.Golden (Literacy and Social Change in Under Developed Countries.in Rural Society XX p.1-7) which covered 54 countries also emphasizes the relation between literacy and economic development. Golden found the correlation coefficient.between literacy and per capita income to be 0.84, between

[130]

Economic development and social progress, an increase in average income and narrowing the gap between living standards in the developing countries and developed countries were a matter of international interest in Teheran Conference.The solution of these problems was sought out. Considering many aspects of development there were five in respect of which literacy work seemed capable of playing a particularly vital role:

--modification of economic and social structures.

--economic diversification.

--industrialization.

--rural development

--achievement of higher productivity.

First, economic development called for reorganization of economic structures and for this a need for radical changes in the social structures were essential. Literacy was considered as a powerful instrument for bringing in psychological conversion and thus promote necessary change.

As development meant economic diversification, to a great extent it was impossible to conceive of diversification of a national economy in a largely illiterate society, because illiteracy was always an obstacle to swift adjustment to new demands. Literacy was considered an important factor to bring in the means of mobilizing the literate labour force at a higher employment level, to set development in motion, and to facilitate the desired adaptation to development tasks.

As developing countries placed more emphasis on the industrialization process for two reasons: first, to increase the national income by increasing exports and producing manufactured and semi-manufactured goods; second, to absorb a large portion of active population and provide them employment. The interdependence between these problems and literacy training thus emerged very clearly. The contribution made by literacy largely depended, of course, on its content. Teaching of reading, writing or general knowledge was rated far lower as an instrument for transforming an individual, and was considered to have less impact as a factor in development and industrialization than literacy teaching based on technical grounds and job related instruction.

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[130](cont'd)literacy and industrialization 0.87, and multiple correlation coefficient between literacy and urbanization, reception of information media, and political participation to be 0.91.

Agricultural development, agricultural output, agricultural extension and augmentation of the annual number of working days among the rural population, were the questions which confront most of the developing countries. It was stressed in the Conference that it would be difficult to attain these objectives solely by modernization of techniques and the training of requisite personnel. Psychological transformation of the rural population was needed. Access to the written word appeared indispensable along with other means of information. It was the written word that would bring home to the adult, rooted in the ways of his ancestors, the importance of modern equipment, adopting new production methods, diversifying crops or new economic activities, and of the importance of transportation of marketing and distribution of products.

A result of sound economic development was increased productivity. The increase in productivity resulting from literacy teachings was always difficult to assess. But the observations in the Conference were that it had been discovered that literate workers were more productive than illiterates. Their work had a higher yield per man hour. Thus, through a process known as capital accumulation, more money became available for reinvestment in things like literacy, which, in turn, enabled other workers to become literate and more productive, triggering the process anew. Second, a direct effect of literacy on the worker was proved by the fact that it was accompanied by higher wages. Though it was difficult sometimes to determine how far literacy represented the sole factor explaining higher earnings. Nevertheless, this relationship constituted a stimulus to individual interest and an inducement towards sacrifices on behalf of functional literacy.

The Connection between Literacy and Technological Development

The highly industrialized and developed countries did not have to solve technological problems similar to those now facing the people of developing countries. In those industrialized nations the progress of technology went hand in hand with that of education, which had expanded gradually and was adapted to the needs of economic development. The developing countries could not afford to wait for a gradual process of training to produce its effects. While training the new generation to meet new demands, they must find large number of new movements to contribute productively in the economy.

Literacy as an Agent of Social Transformation

Literacy was considered to have a wider and more essential function with respect to development than those mentioned above; literacy was a factor in changing the environment.

New mental attitudes and behaviour patterns were thought desirable factors if rapid and far-reaching social and economic evolution was the goal. It was pointed out that by the means of the written word that the people could gain a better understanding of the social machinery, the desire to take an active part in the life of the country and the sense of participation in its problems could be stirred in them. Contribution to the country's social and economic development would come from the masses and it would not be a matter of concern to technocrats only. It was also by means of the written word that people could adopt new practises with regard to problems such as those relating to marriage and birth control, diet, housing, health and education.

It was thought for a long time that to provide leadership or to get people to take an active part in community life or to provide further vocational training for illiterates, would be sufficient to lead to development. But experts in the conference argued that the experiences showed that this is not true. Such action may be expected to produce material effects, start off a process of evolution, create a desire for change and to stimulate organization for collective action[131], but it could not bring about that transformation of the individual which comes by a deep realization of the problems faced, and which alters and regulates his varying social behaviour patterns. Literacy was considered important to provide people with adaptability to changes and to modern forms of life.

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[131] Literacy as a Factor in Development, op.cit., p.18.

4.2.3 FUNCTIONAL LITERACY

To speed up the dissemination of attitudes favourable to modernization, Gunnar Myrdal proposed that the emphasis be placed upon adult programmes. At the same time, he acknowledged that demand for such programmes was limited for the traditional rural communities as literacy did not meet the needs of the majority of people.

> The reputed "hunger for knowledge" in the villages ....is largely an upper-class myth, particularly as applied to the rural districts with self-sufficiancy agriculture....Education, even when directed towards practical problems of development, does not provoke an immediate response among the people, least of all in the villages.... People have to be conditioned to welcome educational opportunities. [132]

Successes were achieved only when literacy was linked to man's fundamental requirements, ranging from his immediate vital needs to effective participation in social change. The adult education must address specific, felt needs. After a major review UNESCO concluded that the poor results of most adult literacy programmes were due to lack of demand. Where there was an explicit needs results were better. This was the reason that UNESCO emphasized 'functional' aspect of literacy--functional literacy--literacy that works.

This term was introduced because the limitations of traditional literacy were well recognised. Traditionnal literacy, based on straight forward methods of reading and writing, alphabets and numeracy, was a barrier in the very beginning of the learning process of the adults, as it lacked any immediate result and consumed considerable amount of time. In functional literacy programmes, the teaching of reading and writing and occupational training are conducted as integrated activities. Functional literacy work was taken 'to mean any literacy operation conceived as a component of economic and social development projects'[133]. It is no longer an isolated or distinct operation but makes it possible to treat the illiterate as an individual in a group context, in relation to a given environment and with a view to development. By its nature, a functional literacy programme is related to precise collective and individual needs, it is ' made to measure', differentiated according to the environment and to specific economic and social objectives. Moreover, traditional literacy programmes are standardized and laid down on a centralized basis but functional literacy programmes are flexible and varied and adaptable to a diversity of immediate objectives and different situations. Traditional literacy work is diffused and non-intensive in character while functional literacy adopts an overall approach. It is directly related to the acquisition of technical skills and knowledge of immediate use in a given environment.

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[132] Myrdal,G. taken from Education:The Social System, and Development, David O'Shea. Vol.I monograph No.2 1973-74. University of Denver. p. 14.

[133] Functional Literacy Why and How?, UNESCO and its Programmes, UNESCO 1970, p 9.

As defined by William S. Gray 'a person is functionally literate when he has acquired the knowledge and skills in reading , writing, and notation, which enable him to engage effectively in all those activities in which literacy is normally assumed in his culture or group.'[134] In the Teheran Conference the positive role of functional literacy in achieving the objectives of United Nations Development Decade and its contribution to social and economic progress was confirmed:

> Rather than an end in itself functional literacy should be regarded as a way of preparing man for a social, civil and economic role, that goes far beyond the limits of rudimentary literacy training consisting merely in the teaching of reading and writing. The very process of learning to read and write should be made an opportunity for acquiring information that can be immediately be used to improve living standards; reading and writing should lead not only to elementary general knowledge but to training for work, increased productivity, a greater participation in civil life and a better understanding of the surrounding world, and should ultimately open the way to basic human culture. [135]

The General Conference of UNESCO in 1966, at its fourteenth session authorized the Director-General to set up the International Advisory Commitee for out-of-school education. This Committee in fact grew out of three former committees--the International Committee for the Advancement of Adult Education, the International Committee of Experts on Literacy, and the International Committee on Youth--which had existed since 1961, 1964, and 1965 respectively. The new combined committee met for the first time in March 1968, and included in its agenda 'a consideration of the concept of functional literacy.' The Conference unanimously passed a resolution embodying the decisions reached in Teheran:

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[134] William S. Gray, 'The Teaching of Reading and Writing', Paris, UNESCO 1956, p 24.
[135] World Conference of Ministers of Education on the Eradication of Illiteracy, Final Report, Paris, UNESCO, 1965.

> The General Conference invites, consequently, in the name of human solidarity, Member States; non-governmental organizations, foundations and private enterprises to do every thing possible to give financial, technical, moral and any other appropriate forms of support for international action against illiteracy under the auspices of UNESCO, in order, as soon as possible, to eliminate illiteracy throughout the world.[136]

An Inter-Agency Meeting on Work-Oriented Literacy was held in December 1967 bringing together, at the invitation of the Director-General of UNESCO, senior officials of the UNDP, the FAO, the WHO, and the World Food Programme, to work out a policy for their collaboration in Experimental World Literacy Programme. This effort for a better collaboration indicated that literacy was no longer regarded as the sole responsibility of an educational organization but as a vital factor in agricultural and industrial development, in the improvement of health, and in the achievement of balanced social and economic development through out the world.

From all these international meetings the outline of a plan for a world campaign emerged[137].

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[136] Functional Literacy and International Development, p 10-11.

[137] The Plan:

1. Ultimately the plan will cover fully every country in the world where illiteracy is a serious problem, which includes most of the countries of Asia, Africa, Latin America, and Arab States.
2. A beginning will be made in a few selected countries where conditions are most favourable. From the central sources assistance will be given to these selected countries not only in planning the total campaign but in manning and managing some intensive experimental projects. Careful evaluation will also be carried out.
3. Funds derived from international sources will be made available in the total plan under the direction of UNESCO, but the largest proportion of funds spent in any country will be made available by that country.
4. The term 'functional literacy' has been adopted and some attempt has been made to achieve an acceptable meaning for the term.
5. A selective strategy will be employed linking the literacy work to economic and social development and choosing for the initial stages those communities or groups or areas where the majority of men and women are highly motivated.
6. The literacy programme will be seen as a part of a general programme of adult education and adult education is conceived as an integral part of the education system of a country. These 'essential relationships' are to be expressed in 'the planning, budgets, and adminwastrative structure ' of education in each country.
7. In addition to specific aid to selected countries, technical assistance will be offered to all Member States, on request, for the planning and execution of national literacy programmes and projects.
8. Organizations and governments in the 'developed' countries will be asked to contribute to these programmes and perhaps, as well, to undertake one or more special bilateral arrangements in additional countries that cannot be aided with funds at the disposal of UNESCO.

4.3 EXPERIMENTAL WORLD LITERACY PROGRAMME (EWLP)

The Experimental World Literacy Programme was an 'unprecedented international effort' to combat the most pressing education problem of the time--adult illiteracy. The EWLP was not started with the dream that a fully literate world can be created in the coming few years, but it did attempt to stop the worsening of the situation with regard to illiteracy in the world. The notion of development-linked functionality lay at the very core of the programme.

> The main objective of the experimental programme was to test and demonstrate the economic and social returns of literacy, and more generally, to study the mutual relations and influences which exist or may be established or strengthened between literacy training----particularly among the working population----and development. [138]

The experimental world literacy programme came as an answer to a prayer; as a hope to long-frustrated expectations of the developing countries. The very idea of functional literacy had aroused the greatest hopes throughout the world[139]. The UNESCO experience provoked the experimental programme which was both selective and intensive. These work-oriented functional literacy programmes were characterized by M. Blaug as follows:

> In a nut shell, the new UNESCO approach is intensive rather than extensive, selective rather than diffusive, work oriented rather than rudimentary literacy, continuous adult education fusing into genuine vocational instruction rather than once-for-all teaching of three Rs. It favours the use of diversified primers rather than single primers, in conjunction with follow-up material embodying specific knowledge of nutrition, sanitation, industrial arts and agricultural science. It does not hesitate to assist the teacher with new educational media and to draw into the teaching process vocational instructors from the Ministry of Labour and extension officers from the Ministry of Agriculture. It regards literacy programmes as first step in the creation of qualified manpower, as investment rather than consumption. It is, to say the least, a more than Literacy Programme; in short, it is an adult education in the fullest sense of the world.[140]

The notion of development-linked functionality lay at the heart of the experimental world programme. The idea was to combine literacy and numeracy with a programme of education in basic vocational skills directly linked to the occupational needs of the participants[141]. In its attempt to link literacy to development, both theoretically and practically EWLP raised a number of important issues like where the bottlenecks of underdevelopment are situated? Or, to what aspect(s) of development should literacy be harnessed.

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[138] The Experimental World Literacy Programme: A Critical Assessment, UNESCO, Paris 1976, p 9.

[139] As Myrdal suggested, unless a literacy drive has a character of a 'movement' and a 'campaign', the chance of success is small, and UNESCO also planned a massive campaign against illiteracy.

[140] Mark Blaug 'Literacy and Economic Development', The School Review, Winter 1966, p 411.

The strategy of EWLP was called 'intensive and selective'. This means, intensive was intentionally opposed to extensive, selective opposed to massive. Activities were to be intensive in that, covering limited zones and selected groups (with high potential multifier effect), the number of participants would be rather small.

The novelty of the concept had quickened the interest of those responsible for development and of technical and professional personnel working in enterprises or on agricultural development schemes in the training of illiterate workers. In the very beginning fifty-two countries had asked to participate in the experiment, which showed the enormous need of the developing countries which were facing high illiteracy rates. In less than three years it mobilized assistance of great worth.

It did not seem feasible to launch a campaign in all countries at once. A few countries were selected on the basis of percentage of illiteracy, on the basis of their economic situation and the level of development, on the determination of the country to contribute at least two-thirds of the total cost of the programme from its own resources. Other factors taken into account were the existence of motivation in the organised sections chosen as a basis for the proposed activities, and likelihood of the extensive voluntary effort and popular participation; and the importance of national literacy programmes already undertaken. The budget allocated for EWLP was around 8 million with maximum provision for educational activities. (See Table 4)[142]

Twelve countries were engaged in pilot-projects and micro-experiments, using a network of institutions and regional centres responsible for assistance and involvement in national literacy programmes. EWLP was an innovative and dynamic effort to achieve

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[141] Some humanist rigorists criticized the approach for narrowing the focus of education to what they deem a single and basely Utilitarian role. other, more radical critics stress that this type of literacy 'functionalizes' only certain aspects of literacy and skills training work, and that it particularly ignores illiterates' need for greater political awareness.

[142] For detailed information on budget see Approved Programme and Budget UNESCO 13 C/5, Annex VI, 1965. Based on document 13 C/PRG/4Add.

It was expected that some eight projects would be launched during the period 1966 to 1970 at the total cost of $24 million or an average of some $5 million per year. Though this estimate was merely indicative and did prove wrong ultimately.

Budget summary of the EWLP

Category	**Regular Programme (US $)**	**Technical Assistance (US $)**	**Special Fund (US $)**	**Total (US $)**
Education	1 146 000	1 406 500	5 000 000	7 552 500
Social Sciences	76 000	–	–	76 000
Cultural Activities	28 000	20 000	–	48 000
Mass Communication	275 000	100 000	–	375 000
International	164 000	–	–	164 000
TOTAL	1 689 000	1 526 500	5 000 000	8 215 500

TABLE 4: Budget Summary of the EWLP

Source: Approved Programme and Budget
UNESCO 13, C/5, Annexx VI.

success in a relatively short period, against adverse circumstances, so it required intensive action on the part of the staff--both national and international.

EWLP comprised five major type of activities. The first three types included independent and diversified projects covering one or several experiments or subprojects of four to five years duration. Among these, nine were carried out with financial assistance from UNDP. Four projects were launched in 1967 (Algeria, Ecuador, Iran, Mali*)[143] four in 1968 (Ethiopia, Guinea, Madagascar and the United Republic of Tanzania) and one in 1969 in Sudan. Secondly, one project launched in 1971 in Zambia was undertaken with international assistance financed from funds-in-trusts. A single project launched in 1965, in Venezuela, was carried out with national financing.

The final two types of activity included pilot projects where functional literacy was a component organically and administratively integrated with a development project which was the responsibility of an institution other than the literacy project *per se*. Thus two projects carried out with financial assistance from UNDP were launched in 1970 in co-operation with the Food and Agriculture Organization (India and Syrian Arab Republic).

The fifth type of project was undertaken with bilateral assistance. This type included two types of projects launched in 1971 with aid from Sweden (Afghanistan and Kenya) and another project undertaken in 1971 with aid from Swiss Foundation (Niger). [144]

Full responsibility for the policy and operation of projects was vested in the governments of the countries (See Table 5). The national contribution to financing exceeded the contribution from international sources, and national staff far outnumbered the international experts engaged in projects. The operational responsibility of the national authorities was consonant with the principle of UNESCO that the Organization was at the service of the Member States was not there to intervene in domestic matters.

The pilot projects started in the second part of the decade were of varied nature. For example, the programme in Ethiopia concerned three agricultural sectors and one important industrial area. Importance had been given to inter Agency co-operation in assisting the government of Ethiopia to carry out this project; the international experts from UNESCO, FAO and ILO were engaged in the project. The object of the programme was to achieve functional literacy among 100,000 adult workers. training was given in

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[143]* For detail on the experiment in Functional Literacy in Mali See Appendix V.
[144] UNESCO,Literacy, 1967-69, p 42-43

TABLE 5. Situation of projects in the Experimental World Literacy Programme: major pilot projects

Country	Projects	Starting date (plan of operation signed)	National ministry or authority responsible	International organizations involved	Total number of international specialists	Total cost of projects (U.S.$)	International contribution (U.S.$)	Estimated number of adults to be made literate
Algeria	Staoueli (rural area); Arzew (industrial); Bou Namoussa (rural and industrial)	3.I.1967	Centre National d'Alphabétisation (Ministry of Education)	Unesco ILO	6 2	4 160 676	1 076 200	100 000
Ecuador	Canton of Cuenca (artisanal); Canton of Milagro (co-operatives); The Pesillo Hacienda (rural)	13.IV.1967	Co-ordination Committee attached to the Ministry of Education	Unesco ILO FAO	6 2 2	2 896 250	1 050 300	32 900
Ethiopia	Marma and Gourma sub-districts (agriculture); Wollamo (Soddo) (agriculture); Chillalo district (mixed agriculture); Shea Province (industrial)	31.VII.1968	Ministry of Education	Unesco FAO ILO	7 4 2	3 577 950	1 369 850	100 000
Guinea	Conakry (industrial); Lower Guinea; Central Guinea; Forest Guinea (agricultural)	28.X.1968	Secrétariat à la Formation	Unesco	8	2 428 100	1 092 500	78 500
India	Functional literacy in districts: 3 in 1967-68; 10 in 1968-69; 75 in 1969-70; 100 in 1970-71	Not signed as yet	Ministries of Agriculture, Education, and Information	FAO Unesco	5 2	Not yet specified	1 433 100	Not specified
Iran	Greater Dez (agricultural); Isfahan (rural and industrial)	24.I.1967	Ministry of Education	Unesco ILO	11 1	2 890 346	1 212 900	100 000
Madagascar	Farafangana; Befandriana Tulear (rural)	Not signed as yet	Secrétariat d'Etat au Développement	Unesco	8	2 013 688	789 500	Not specified
Mali	Segou Area (rural); Bamako area (industrial)	11.II.1967	Ministry of Education	Unesco ILO	7 1	4 247 112	1 067 100	110 000
Sudan	Khashm Al-Qirbah (agricultural); Khartoum-North (industrial)	19.II.1969	Ministry of Education	Unesco FAO	5 2	1 193 200	471 000	70 000
Syria	Ghab region	Not signed as yet	Ministry of Agriculture and Agrarian Reform	FAO Unesco	5 2	426 050 (literacy component only)	262 850	30 000
Tanzania	Mara; Mwanza; Shinyanga; West Lake (agricultural)	20.IX.1967	Ministry of Regional Administration and Rural Development	Unesco FAO ILO	7 1 1	6 411 231	1 065 800	250 000
Venezuela	Lara; Trujillo; Portuguesa	28.V.1968	Ministry of Education	Unesco	1	11 000 000 (approx.)	120 000 (approx.)	280 000

Source: LITERACY 1967-1969, UNESCO, Paris, 1970

Amharic language.

The Guinea project, a five-years scheme, was to assist the government to organize and implement two pilot work-oriented literacy experiments. The first (industrial) sub-project aimed to provide technical and vocational training in industrial enterprises in Conakry, the national vegetable and meat canning factory at Mamou, and sawmills near Seredou, where a timber project was organised by FAO and UNDP assistance. The second sub-project aimed to make literate some 75,000 agricultural workers in three agricultural areas, in Lower Guinea, Central Guinea and Forest Guinea.

Although they differed in size, scope and duration, the experimental projects had much in common. They were experimental in two sense: first they explored and evaluated the relationship between functional literacy and development, and second, they applied and tested new methods. They explored a variety of new approaches to education and training illiterate adults. This experimental nature of these projects accounted for the high *per capita* cost per adult to be made functionally literate (See seventh and ninth columns of Table 5). It was planned that if these methods prove successful, they would be extended to a greater number of illiterates and the cost *per capita* would decrease correspondingly, as the initial costs of experimentation and research were more widely spread.

Each of the major pilot projects contained several sub-projects in different parts of the country and a variety of experiments could be undertaken in urban and rural areas. In each of these functional literacy was integrated into a different type of development. (See Table 6)[145]

Table 7 describes briefly the people for whose benefit projects had been established. It also shows the languages in which literacy is taught in the various projects and sub-projects.

The EWLP yielded noteworthy and immediate results. According to the estimated result of projects in five EWLP countries on which data were available, over 120,000 men and women were made functionally literate. The success of these projects was due to its being functional in character, as they were closely linked with development and being experimental in nature, which brought both innovations in methods and changes in

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[145] From a report prepared by the Secretariat for the General Conference of UNESCO at its 15th Session in 1968.

Development Aims of World Literacy Projects

Aims of development	Projects	Sub-projects
Reorganization of socio-economic structures		
Agrarian reform	Chile	
	Ecuador	Milagro, Pesillo
Promotion of active participation in community life, in towns and country areas	Madagascar	Faragangana
	Guinea	
Improvement of self-management	Algeria	Sahel (Algiers) Arzew (Oran)
Development of co-operatives	Tanzania	Mara; Mwanza; Shinyanga; West Lake
	Ecuador	Milagro
Development of local craft co-operatives	Iran	Isfahan
	Ecuador	Milagro
Agricultural settlement	Ethiopia	Wollamo (Soddo)
Settling of nomadic populations	Sudan	Khashm-al-Qirbah
Improvement of work qualifications and integretion of workers into enterprises	Mali	Bamako
	Brazil	Valley of the Rio Doce
	Sudan	Khartoum
Modernization of the primary sector		
Irrigation Projects	Iran	Dezful
	Mali	Segou
	Algeria	Bou Namoussa
	Syria	Valley of the Ghab
	Sudan	Khashm-al-Qirbah
Development of export products	Tanzania	
	Ethiopia	Marma; Gourma; Wollamo (Soddo)
	Mali	Segou
	Nigeria	Ibadan
Increase in food production	India	
Transformation of subsistence economy into market economy	Ecuador	Pesillo

Aims of development	**Projects**	**Sub-projects**
Integrated regional development	Ethiopia	Chillalo
Modernization and mechanization of agricultural	Venezuela	All projects in rural areas
Agricultural extension work and training of farmers	Ethiopia India Mali	 Segou
Development of the secondary sector		
Setting up of small industries for the processing of farm products	Iran	Isfahan
Modernization of craft techniques	Iran Ecuador	Isfahan Cuenca
Modernization of traditional industries	Iran	Isfahan
Setting up of new industries based on advanced technology	Algeria Iran	Arzew, Annaba Reeze

TABLE 6: Development Aims of World Literacy Projects

Source: Literacy 1967-1969, Paris, UNESCO, 1970.

TABLE 7. Projects, people and languages

Country	Sub-project	People benefited	Languages used for literacy
Major projects			
Algeria	Staoueli (rural)	5 000 farmers and agricultural workers	French and Arabic
	Arzew (industrial)	25 000 industrial workers	
	Bou Namoussa (rural and industrial)	70 000 workers	
Ecuador	Canton of Cuenca (industrial)	15 000 industrial workers	Spanish
	Canton of Milagro (co-operatives)	15 900 farmers	
	The Pesillo Hacienda	2 000 farmers	
Ethiopia	Marma and Gourma sub-districts (agricultural)	50 000 coffee growers	Amharic
	Wollamo/Soddo (agricultural) Chillalo district (mixed agriculture)	45 000 cotton growers	
	Shea Province (industrial)	5 000 industrial workers	
Guinea	Conakry (industrial)	3 500 industrial workers	One of the eight national languages as appropriate: Kissi, Guerzé, Toma, Malinke, Fulami, Soussou, Bamaré and Cognagui
	Lower Guinea Central Guinea Forest Guinea (agricultural)	75 000 farmers	
India	Functional literacy in districts: 3 in 1967-68 10 in 1968-69 75 in 1969-70 100 in 1970-71	Farmers (approximately 1 million)	Language of each linguistic area
Iran	Great Dez (agricultural) Isfahan (rural and industrial)	45 000 farmers and industrial workers	Farsi
Madagascar	Farafangana Befandriana Tuléar (rural)	Agricultural workers (number not definitely known)	Malagasy
Mali	Segou area (rural)	100 000 cotton and rice producers	French and Bambara
	Bamako area (industrial)	10 000 industrial workers	
Sudan	Khashm Al-Girba (agricultural)	Farmers	Arabic
	Khartoum-North (industrial)	Industrial workers	
Syria	Ghab region	Farmers	Arabic
Tanzania	Mara ; Mwanza ; Shinyanga ; West Lake (agricultural)	Farmers (number not yet finalized)	Swahili
Venezuela	Lara Trujillo Portuguesa	Farmers and workers engaged in different activities (agricultural, animal husbandry, handicrafts, industrial)	Spanish
Micro-experiments			
Algeria	Correspondence course (Oran)	Literacy teachers and instructors, semi-illiterates	Arabic and French
Brazil	Companhia Vale do Rio Doce	Industrial workers	Portuguese
Chile	Institute for Training and Research on Agrarian Reform (Santiago)	Land reform beneficiaries	Spanish
Jamaica	Kingston	30 000 illiterate adults	English
Nigeria	Ibadan	Tobacco growers	Yoruba
Tunisia	Co-operative (Mornag Village)	Agricultural co-operative members	Arabic
Upper Volta	Literacy component in the project 'Access of Women to Education' Kongoussi; Po; Banfora	2 500 illiterate women	Moré

Source: Literacy 1967-1969, UNESCO, Paris, 1970.

administrative structures. These projects did not use well tried techniques or methods; it was under actual operational conditions that techniques and methods might be worked out, and this was very much a process of trial and error.

In the project the manner in which functional literacy operations were carried out was totally different from other mass literacy projects. These began with the identification of problems and survey of local conditions. The study schedule was not like the academic year, but was established in an industrial context or in a rural context in relation to the cycle of agricultural activities. The literacy materials were tested and attention was paid to living conditions, psychological attitudes and changing needs of adults. Financial and occupational incentives were provided for workers attending literacy classes. If a worker attended these classes, wholly or partially, during the working hours the workers who completed them were paid bonuses or received preference for promotion within the enterprise. For more effective results many modern educational and training techniques were used such as programmed education (in Algeria, Brazil and Nigeria), the use of computers (in Brazil) for studying syllables and word frequency in everyday life at work, and the use of Television (in Jamaica) and of radio (in Iran) for the training of instructors.

Functional literacy being a new concept, a wide variety of methods were used to facilitate the instructors' work such as-special text books, psychopedagogical advice, daily instruction sheets, bulletins, and a range of advice by radio. Several types of teaching materials and methods had been tested: textbooks linking literacy training to agricultural knowledge, a series of complementary text books, text books to accompany broadcasts, weekly tips or instructions for adults following courses, and lessons on fly-sheets inserted in local news papers.

Literacy is essentially an extension of the use of language for communication from speaking and listening to writing and reading. There is no problem in countries where there is a single common language but in any area where several languages are spoken the question may be very relevant, and may involve conflicting social, political and technical considerations. It is easier for anyone to become literate in his or her mother tongue than in any foreign language. Secondly, an unwritten language cannot be used for literacy teaching. There was a need fora long and extensive study by expert linguists, they may have to record its different dialects and determine which should be taken as norm, endow it with an alphabet, prepare word lists, establish grammar and eventually compile a dictionary[146].

Due to its selective experimental nature and its focus of development it faced certain problems. In the very beginning they were realized, but still they had affected the total success of the projects. The main problems are mentioned below:

The experimental projects were selective in nature and they were directly related to the priorities laid down in national development plans and concern particular groups of adults whose illiteracy holds up economic and social development. The content of the project had to be literacy teaching with appropriate technical training specially designed to meet the needs of each group. Since functional literacy was conceived as an aid to development, it had to be promoted where modernization was in progress, but where the presence of a high percentage of adult illiterates constituted a particularly serious obstacle to the implementation of certain projects. Functional literacy could be applied to the population able to appreciate the fact that their ignorance debars them from playing their full part in the economic processes of production and distribution and in civic life generally, but sometimes the preliminary studies designed to furnish guidance in making necessary choices were not always accepted well or could be carried out as rigorously as they should have been. Integration of literacy into development schemes had to involve a more complex operation than old-fashioned literacy campaigns. The new approach demanded greater flexibility on the part of authorities. It also demanded the cooperation of many agencies, different agencies, trade unions, industrial managements and specialists in the field.

Other important features of functional literacy work was that it is concerned with man in the performance of his functions, the most important of which is that of producer. The project could only be successful if it could get right into the production environment. This needed collaboration of various social and occupational agencies from the very beginning, in drawing up the programmes and for setting up an appropriate infrastructure.

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[146] See 'The Linguistic Infrastructure' in Appendix V, which discusses the experiment in Functional Literacy in Mali.

Again, these projects were quite time-consuming at the preparatory stage, minimum twelve months, because it was necessary to take into account how one country differed from another in regard to administrative structures, co-ordinated procedures, educational methods suitable for adults, prevailing attitudes among factory workers and among those responsible for development programmes etc.

In the implementation stage, many difficulties arose from the frequent changes in the economic, social, and political situation of the countries concerned. Which sometimes resulted in the modification of development priorities, change in collective and individual attitudes, in the backing received from social and occupational groups, in administrative structures and so on.

There were problems of staffing and supporting technical services for training, production of media and research and evaluation. Even if the problem of staffing was overcome, it had not always been easy for personnel to adopt and apply new techniques. The tendency had been to adhere to traditional practices[147]. Problems of distance and scattered pattern of settlement did impose constraints. Coordination and follow-up work was difficult due to communication and transportation problems.

Despite of these problems literacy work was placed firmly in the development context: it was to be narrowly 'practical', professionally directed, with strong emphasis on its contribution to the achievments of the economic development goals.

Some countries, following Cuba's lead, had rejected the selective approach but most countries answering the 1969-71 literacy questionaire stated that adult literacy education had a beneficial effect on productivity and standard of living. For a developing country, a view of literacy education that stresses economic consequences gives a clear guide to the use of resources for this form of education. The questionnaire response from Argentina indicates how this emphasis can be developed:

> ..... for the first time, adult education is being programmed and planned, taking into account labour needs at the national, regional, and local levels. The activities of these centres take place where technological change and a process of industrial expansion require the vocational training of adults.
>
> In this way, literacy can integrate itself with a concrete programme of

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[147] This was the reason that the selection and training of teacher-instructors and extension workers to integrate literacy teaching with vocational training and rural extension programs had been one of the preoccupations in EWLP.

economic development at the adult and regional levels. [148]

Realizing the importance of literacy as a component of development had caused many countries to develop an official policy toward adult literacy or revise existing policies during the period. The government of Niger sent a document with the 1969-71 questionnaire stating:

> Developments over the last five years have gradually impelled literacy workers to see literacy techniques as an element in a permanent process of extension work among the people. Literacy is therefore seen as more and more as a tool-- undoubtedly of great value but, like all tools, needing to be used. This realization had led the literacy services over the last two years to concentrate expressly on functional literacy project[149]

Two other countries in which adult literacy programmes were closely linked with over all development plans were Ecuador (The country is following the policy of massive literacy linked to the priorities of development) and Peru (...isolated literacy programmes are no more conceivable than development programmes without literacy. In their development plans, such sectors as agriculture, mining, fisheries, industry, trade, etc. give priority to literacy activities)[150]. Burma and Chile regarded literacy as a means of social, cultural and political transformation. Chile speaks of a 'policy of massive literacy for the workers in the framework of of a vast national mobilisation.'

For all these countries, literacy was no longer an end, but one of several means to a variety of desired ends. But successes were to be achieved when literacy programmes were not to be restricted to economic plane only, when they did not subordinate literacy to the short term needs of growth----unconcerned with man.

4.3.1 EWLP--A FAILURE ?

An important chapter in the history of campaign against illiteracy was closed with the publication of a critical evaluation of 'EWLP, A Critical Assessment' (published by UNESCO and UNDP) in 1976[151], and with an International symposium for literacy held at Persepolis in September 1975.

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[148] Literacy 1969-1971, UNESCO, 1972, p 35.
[149] Ibid p 50-51
[150] Ibid p 57.
[151] For detailed information, see "Experimental World Literacy Programme: a Critical Assessment. A UNESCO/UNDP evaluation report published in 1976, is a open discussion of what was learned from eleven EWLP projects. It has traced out the successes and failures of the projects and then generalized the findings for future use.

The declaration of Persepolis summed up the problems of illiteracy of the mid seventies and constituted a reply given to the resolutions of the Teheran Conference, which had initiated a decade of experimentation and efforts.

Assessing by the very critical analysis of the pilot experiments one may think that the whole enterprise was a failure, with a high drop-out rates (50% to 60%), costs, and low retention of literacy [152]. In the first place it did not lead to any major literacy campaigns, secondly, it could not convincingly reveal the connections which might exist between functional literacy and economic and social development, which had been the main objectives of the programme. Though in the beginning it did not seem that adult literacy should cost so much, the figures produced by EWLP experiments showed that it is possible to teach an adult to read and write for a sum of $50 to $100. It is an enormous sum in a country where the annual per capita income is less than $100. Seeing the drop-out rates of literacy courses (50%) it would be futile to think that this malady can be eliminated just by adult literacy work[153].

The EWLP was unable to produce any clear proof of the existence of a direct causality between literacy and development. The economic profitability of adult literacy could not be proven. On the other hand, literacy cannot be considered as a project independent of the development process, more success of these projects was expected when they were made integral part of over-all development plans. Most of the disappointments connected with literacy campaigns tend to prove this argument.

Further, literacy is meaningless without the creation of an infrastructure of continuous learning, by ensuring the supply of reading material. It was found out that 60% of adults who have learnt how to read and write, relapse into illiteracy every few years because of the lack of reading materials. Creating infrastructure is really an enoromous and time consuming job, especially in rural areas with inadequate transport and media facilities. It was too much to expect from these experiments, success depended more on local bodies, the governments.

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[152] In Algeria-- Literacy groups were formed in both the agricultural and the industrial sectors. Approximately 54,000 illiterate persons participated in the project, nearly half of whom successfully completed the two course cycles of twenty to twenty four months.
In Iran--the project was carried out in two pilot areas (Ispahan and Dezful) and affected nearly 100,000 peasants, artisans, workers, miners and women. Just as in Algeria, there was a high percentage of drop-outs (about 60%) in spite of the use of the modern methods and an urgent demand for literacy on that part of population.

[153] In the battle against illiteracy, children's schooling plays a very important, if not decisive, role. If the governments do not have enough means to put all the children in school it must think on the lines of integrating school and out-of-school education.

These programmes were on an experimental basis and they showed the conditions which have to be met if a literacy project is to suceceed. From these experiments UNESCO learnt more about how to make success of a literacy campaign. The first lesson learnt was that the problems of adult literacy were much more complex than first thought and there are various factors which affect it.

Among the other lessons to be learnt from this venture were:

1. the needs and aspirations of illiterate individuals and groups had to be taken into consideration in identifying the goals of literary work;
2. programme contents had to be functional goals of literacy work;
3. programme contents had to be functional from the stand point of enabling new literates to acquire knowledge and skills that would be useful in political, social, cultural and economic fields;
4. international aid should supplement national endeavours, both intellectual and material, but should not try to substitute for them;
5. where a large number of new literates come on the scene in a highly illiterate country the provision of post literary training was considered necessary to lay down the infrastructure for a literate society.

The most important issue in the success of the programmes was the political will. The countries like U.S.S.R., China, Cuba, and industrialized countries of Western Europe and America have fought the battle against illiteracy and won it. Other countries such as Algeria and Tanzania, seem to be on the way to success. In some countries the results of EWLP's programme were disappointing to the governments. They were expecting an immediate solution to the crying need of illiteracy in their countries. They were hoping for action, whereas the UNESCO wished to evaluate highly sophisticated experiments.

Still, one has to conclude if failure is too strong a word to describe EWLP projects, disappointment is not. The results of EWLP were disappointing to more enthusiastic participants and the well-wishers of the programme. The 'eventual world campaign for the eradication of mass literacy, for which EWLP had to prepare the way, could not be achieved. Functional literacy activities remained limited, fragmentary, and incidental. This poignant lesson of a world programme proved once again that neither literacy nor development as a whole can be brought into existence by international agencies that are intergovernmental too. International organizations, like UNESCO fail miserably if they want to substitute any thing in the system without the consent of national governments. At best they can prick the conscience of national governments by bringing into focus their own needs and their own limitations.

CHAPTER V

PROGRESS: THE PERIOD OF 1969-1979

During the period of 1960-1970 remarkable progress was made in many fields, particularly in education. This expansion was due to the combined considerations of human rights, justice and economics. But with this growth, dissatisfaction grew. In a paper presented to the Stanford International Development Educational Center, Malcolm S.Adiseshiah observed that there was no generally accepted concept of development guiding the activities of the 1960s, and in consequence the decade had ended with divergent instead of convergent national and international actions. He declared that what was implicit in few set aims of the decade soon become transformed into an economic growth concept of development which produced its own structural distortions and social and international upheaval[154].

In the spheres of education, science and culture the positive achievements of the decade had themselves given rise to critical problems. Despite the spectacular expansion of education, there were more children out of school than in school, and the population explosion, responsible for the fact, had also increased the number of adult illiterates. Economists became alarmed; any faith in education as a decisive growth factor, and a primary source of wealth for individuals and society was shaken. Education budgets, which had expanded to occupy a top place in private and public expenditure, absorbed a growing amount of the national income. The expenditure on education of the traditional type had increased to the point where it threatened the general equilibrium of the national economy[155]. The 'democrats' were unsatisfied. It was true that a greater proportion of children and young people had entered school but equality of opportunity could not keep the pace. The existing systems were designed for the luckier persons, those who have been born on the right side of the social barriers and who had the advantage of a good cultural start in life, or those who had more talent[156].

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[154] Malcolm S.Adiseshiah, UNESCO and the Second Development Decade, Paper presented to the Stanford International Development Education Center, Stanford University, 24th July 1970. p.5. Paris. UNESCO. 1970

[155] In many countries education was taking 10-15 per cent of government's expenditure at the beginning of the sixties, 20-25 per cent by the end of the decade. According to UNESCO, public expenditure on education equalled 2.4 per cent of GNP in the average developing countries in 1960, and it exceeded to 3.4 per cent in 1970.

The period of the Second Development was one of optimism, an optimism to meet the challenges. In 1950s UNESCO groped and fumbled, it was not totally guided by the objectives and goals set by the Constitution but there was sustained response to meet the needs of Member States. The 1960s were a period of planning and implementation which still left too much to be done. The progress of agricultural education, technical and vocational education, in relation to the needs of rural communities, had been slower and less successful. Still, the stress on out-of-school education of the 1960s gave way to concept of lifelong education which was key to the transformation of education in 1970s.

By the 1970s the Organization appeared as a dynamic instrument of development. The moral and ethical action of UNESCO was most relevent to the process of development. Co-operation and partnership with others, the spirit of humanity and equality for the benefit of all, the process of giving and receiving which was creative and dignified were the key concepts. The strategy for the UN Second Development Decade reflected certain changing values. The essence of this change was the general acceptance of a redefinition of national development to include not only an increase in the gross national product, but also an improvement in the distribution of income and employment, the alleviation of poverty, the provision of minimum social services, and the enhancement of cultural values and identity. Thus, the overall strategy adopted by the General Assembly for 1970s placed 'major emphasis upon the better distribution within developing countries of the benefits of development'. Along with a greater emphasis for social and cultural values the ethical basis of development started gaining ground[157].

At its eighty-third session in October 1969 the Executive Board had put forward the concept of development based on some principles formulated earlier by the General Conference.

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[156] Edgar Faure says, "The rest,the less gifted and less favoured, are either eliminated by a more or less arbitrary system of selection or pushed to the fringes of society when they occupy the subordinate position. For humanists, educationists and economists alike, it was believed that each person should do what he is capable of and fulfill his potentialities in a life long process of achievement."Edgar Faure, Strategies for Innovation . in Prospects,Vol II, No. 1, Spring 1972, p.8

[157] Like Goulet (1971) wrote: "Development is not a cluster of benefits given to people in need , but rather a process by which a populace acquires a greater mastery over its own destiny." D. Goulet, The Cruel Choice: A New Concept in the Theory of Development, p. 155. New York, McClelland and Stewart, 1971.

> The Concept of development should include economic and social factors as well as the moral and cultural values on which depend the full development of the human personality and the dignity of man in society.... Not only is man at the origin of development, not only is he its instrument and beneficiary, but above all he must be regarded as its justification and its end.[158]

The unprecedented educational expansion of the 1960s had to find new ways to be more fruitful. This education explosion was lacking in 'quality'. It needed new vistas for renewal. In this process of development in the 1970s the catalytic role of UNESCO made considerable contributions, both by bringing in innovations and promoting regional and international co-operation for the increase and improvement of education.

One of the lessons of the First Development Decade was that education by itself seldom provides the dynamism by which people get on the ladder of self-sustaining development. Instead, it was felt that education and training can perhaps only complement renewal or reinforce the development process. UNESCO, like the United Nations, showed concern for development that far transcended mere economic growth and encompassed the full life of man. The impetus given to the concept and practice of lifelong-education indicates that the realization of the aspirations of the Second Development Decade were in the proper appreciation of the two concepts of 'development' and 'lifelong education'. Education as a lifelong process was going to affect people from all age groups, all classes and socio-economic groups. The clear-cut distinction between in-school and out-of-school education, which had persisted for so long, was due to fade gradually. In this connection growing importance was attached to adult education.

Regeneration of education was one of UNESCO's key objectives during the Second Development Decade. Through increased flexibility, education---including professional or vocational training---would need to meet both short term and long-term objectives. New training schemes had to be devised to meet growing urban unemployment (one of the by-products of rapid industrialization), improve the effectiveness of agricultural production, and offer school drop-outs a chance to learn new skills for re-entry into the labour force. It was decided that from the point of view of community, particularly in terms of its economic development, productivity had to be increased by better adaptation of curricula for both school and informal education and training. The stress was to be laid on the types of education which produce speedy results, such as the various forms of retraining, functional literacy, rural leadership schemes, and mass information programmes. More important, it was felt that the seventies should have an educational system which would improve the 'quality' of life, by adapting to rapid and constant change, keeping in mind the national development as the ultimate objective.

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[158] In The Minds of Men . op.cit. p 126

5.1 LEARNING TO BE

These ideas were put into words in a report, Learning to Be[159] in 1972, this report had a world-wide effect on educational policies. It brought into focus the existing drawbacks of the education systems, and pleaded for the need of innovation and change.

The faith of the 1960s in education, its consequences, the expansion of educational institutions, gnawing inequalities, increasing number of illiterates and growing suspicion of 1970s constituted the background which for the report 'Learning To Be'.

> However, the first flush of assurance is gradually giving way to doubts and uncertainities. A growing suspicion in Nietzsche's words, is little by little eating into the minds of those responsible for education, and a growing number of them now find themselves in a dilemma[160]

After an extensive survey of the state of education at that time it was found that in spite of great expansion at the quantitative level, an immense amount of work still remained to be done. Hundreds of millions of children and young people throughout the world (and more so over in underdeveloped countries) were without any kind of education. There were just as many who had received the rudimentary education and had fallen back into ignorance, through combined effect of lack of practice and the absence of a suitable cultural infrastructure. There were still hundreds of millions of adult illiterates and their absolute number continues to increase because of the increase in population.

Hence education was regarded necessary to establish the solid foundations of social justice and equality of opportunities. To make education accessible to all, however, did not mean the repetition *ad infinitium* of existing patterns. It was considered quite wrong to perpetuate methods of education and training which were alien to the spirit of justice and unprofitable. [161]

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[159] The tiltle of the report of the International Report on the Development of Education published by UNESCO/Harrap, in 1972, and some time referred to as the "Faure Report." Edgar Faure was a minister of finance, economics, and planning in France for along time. He was also the chairman of this commission.

[160] Edgar Faure, Strategies for Innovation Prospects, Vol 11, No.I, Spring 1972 p.7-8

The Commission on the Development of Education was in complete agreement over the final aim of education which was 'to educate man', in and for the present scientific and technical period in which we are living. There was always the danger of dividing the human race into two---on one hand a fairly small number of men, educated and thus with power in their hands, and on the other hand the vast mass of those without education who had received only mechanical education leaving them aside from any form of power. In this way a relationship of superiority and inferiority, master and slave, would be created. Education, as seen by the Commission was to bring up a new man who is neither a robot-master nor a robot-slave, he would be a self realized, self-determined individual, living in the scientific and technological era, capable of making independent decisions and enjoying autonomy.

The Commission also considered the ways and means of realizing this idea of global and integrated education continuing throughout a person's life. Having a 'common core' of activities was favoured. By this it was meant that there should be a combination of general education, technical training and a range of practical activities. An education like this was considered vital for everybody not only for utilitarian reasons but also for reasons of principle which link up with our philosophical analysis. In the scientific and technical age, everyman must be capable of understanding the world in which he lives and of playing an intelligent part in its running. This entails an education which is at one and the same time scientific and humanistic. Every man must be trained to pass continually from theory to practice and from practice to theory, for this was considered the fundamental requirement of the technological age. The paths leading to man's fulfilment are those of knowledge, action and production.

Still, the 'master concept' to work on was 'lifelong education' the report states "We propose lifelong education as a master concept in the years to come for both developed and developing countries." Applications of the idea would differ greatly but "the question of lifelong education, the decisions to take and paths to follow, in order to achieve it, are the crucial issues of our time, in all countries of the world, even in those which have yet to become fully aware of this idea."[162]

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[161] For example, the developing countries have inherited school syllabuses and teaching methods from the former colonial powers, which are quite irrelevant to the needs of these countries. Now, they have to create a type of education that will suit their particular culture and meet their needs. Often they have to reach the painful decision as to what language is to be the medium of instruction.

Adult education was seen in the context of this lifelong learning, that,

> The normal culmination of educational process is adult education. It is an integral part of the whole education system.
>
> We should never set adult education against the education of children and young people; the concept of global or over all education goes beyond the semblence of contradiction, enabling the two extremes to be enlisted, parallel to each other and at the same time, in service to common educational objectives, in the broadest sense.
>
> It follows that adult education can no longer be a fringe sector of activity in any society and must be given its own proper place in educational policies and budgets. This means that school and out-of-school must be linked firmly together.[163]

5.2 INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION YEAR

UNESCO's General Conference proclaimed 1970 as the International Education Year. This event stimulated widespread reflection on the future of education in nearly every country. The statement made by the Director-General at this time indicates UNESCO's major educational committment during the 1970s.

> With regard to lifelong education it is now a matter of common knowledge that this is a concept which explains the real meaning of modern education and which should inspire and sum up all efforts directed towards reform..... In the period following the International Education Year, which, we have reason to hope will give an impetus to global thinking and the will to reform, this ought to be the main line along which should be planned, over the next decade, UNESCO's activities in all the matters pertaining to education.[164]

Earlier, in December 1965, UNESCO's International Committee for the Advancement of Adult Education discussed a paper by Paul Lengrand on the concept of continuing education, and recommended that UNESCO should endorse the principle of lifelong education. As this concept of education was regarded as a continuing process throughout the life, called for integrated organization. It was meant that integration should be achieved both vertically, throughout the duration of life , and horizontally to cover all the aspects of life of individuals and societies.

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[162] E.Faure et al.Learning to Be, Paris UNESCO, 1972 pp.182

[163] Faure et.al. op.cit., p 205

[164] International Education Year 1970, Bulletin, no. 2, September 1969, p.3.

As the various projects of the Member States, which were initiated throughout 1970, were examined, it was found that lifelong education would be the unifying principle that would enable all aspects of education to be brought together into a coherent whole. Member States were urged to redefine education and see it as a dimension of whole life. In many cases it was found that approaches to educational problems sometimes provided conflicting solutions specially when they were considered independent of one another. The realization of their mutual inter-dependence could only remove these difficulties. Thus, in 1970, when the results of the International Education Year were evaluated, it was found that lifelong education had in fact become one of the themes that was most prominent among all the various educational experiences of the Member States during the course of the year. In his report on the activities of UNESCO during 1970[165] the Director-General noted that at least 19 projects had been undertaken which explicitly tried to elucidate the concept of lifelong education, to examine its implications for the current programmes in such fields as literacy teaching and occupational retraining, or to apply it in planning new activities. The Director-General emphasised that a central task was still that of theoretically analysing the implications of integrated lifelong education and establishing priorities which will help in the institutionalizing the concept.

A special Committee of the Executive Board of UNESCO came to consider the Director's Report in April 1971. The Secretariat and Member States were mainly concerned with the problem of institutionalizing lifelong education because the concept itself was not clear. Further, there were practical difficulties of reorganizing national education systems to achieve closer integration of all their formal and non-formal components were obvious. The Education Sector of UNESCO itself planned to take up 29 projects concerned with lifelong education. The implementation of the programme was divided among four departments, but their harmonization was not easy to achieve. Nevertheless, the Director of the Education Sector felt that 'a point in UNESCO's history had at last been reached where the process of education was no longer being thought of as divided into separate entities, primary education, secondary education, technical education and adult education; these were now seen as continuous integrated projects'[166].

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[165] Report of the Director-General on the Activities of the Organization in 1970. Addendum: General Assessment of Education Year, p.10. Paris UNESCO 1971.

5.3 THIRD INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON ADULT EDUCATION

A cry for a more comprehensive and more flexible education system and total recognition of the concept of lifelong education made UNESCO select the title of the Tokyo Conference: 'Adult Education in the context of Lifelong Learning'. At Montreal, the delegates forgetting their political and ideological differences had tried to establish a basis of concord and cooperation through adult education. They had wanted adult education to become an integral part of the education system.

Now at Tokyo, the distinguished delegation comprised ministers of state or acknowledged educationists, who gathered to give recognition to the fact that adult education had now come to be accepted as an integral part of the provision of education in many countries. The conference documents also stressed that the short term future of adult education should be considered in relation to the general aims of the Second Development Decade. The representation at Tokyo conference was more than double to that of the Montreal Conference. Whereas there were some 117 delegates in Montreal, the total number present at Tokyo was around 300. Eighty four countries were represented: from Africa came 19, from Latin America 14, from Asia and Far East regions 14, from Middle East 8. There were fifteen countries from Western Europe, three from the Soviet bloc, four from the socialist countries of Eastern Europe, Canada and U.S.A. from North America. Jamaica and Trinidad from Caribbean and Australia, New Zealand and Phillipines from the Pacific area. There were also 37 international organizations in consultative relationship with UNESCO. This group included four specialized agencies of the United Nations, Food and Cultural Organization, I.B.R.D., I.L.O. and UNDP. Two other organizations attended the UNESCO conference for the first time---they were the African Adult Education Association and Ibero-American Bureau of Education (although, it had no consultative status with UNESCO).

The purpose of the conference was to:

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[166] UNESCO Executive Board, Report of the special Committee on its Examination of the Report of the Director-General on the Activities of the Organization, p. 22., Paris, UNESCO, 14 April 1971(87 Ex/6)

1. examine the trends in adult education during the last two decades;
2. consider the functions of adult education in the context of life long education; and
3. review the strategies of educational development in respect of adult education.

5.3.1 TRENDS IN ADULT EDUCATION

Discussing the trends in Adult Education in the past decade of (1960-70) it was noted at the conference that technological development and economic growth in many parts of the world had led to the problems of deteriorating environment and increasing urbanization. And Adult Education had also been called upon more and more to provide solution to such issues. The emergence of new developing nations, with needs and problems of international concern, led to the focussing of much more attention to the adult education requirements of these countries, particularly in the areas of literacy and rural development. The conference also came to the conclusion that there had been a growing public awareness of the importance of adult education. It was well accepted as being integrated with the concept of life long learning. There was a marked increase in the numbers of people participating in adult education programme. Adult education gained some importance as its scholarly status was recognized. Another achievment of adult education was its inclusion in national development plans or the willingness of the governments to include adult education programmes in such plans. The gradual integration between adult education and formal education became apparent in the sixties as adult education was expected to solve problems relating to youth, such as the incidence of school drop-outs, and unemployed school leavers.

The most important trend, which was discussed in the conference was the development of the functional aspects of the adult education. Many speakers expressed their disagreement with the use of the word 'functional literacy'. They argued that by this term it can be understood that the object of literacy was to subordinate the adult to economic mechanisms and to production alone, without instilling the elements of participation and social and cultural involvement. Inspite of a difference of opinion about the term used to describe it, there was a consensus in the Conference regarding the actual meaning of an integrated approach to literacy and adult education.

The experience of the literate countries was that there was a close connection between the social and economic reformation of a society and the level of literacy. The link between economic development and education had been particularly strong in the sixties. The rising unemployment and labour dislocation due to technological changes had been countered by multiple adult education activities like occupational retraining, in-service training within industries, rural training, cooperatives, correspondence education, and night schools.

Adult Education, in the 1960s, appeared as a separate discipline with Universities which opened special departments of Adult Education. Many institutions offered degrees,diplomas and certificates in this field.

From the discussions which took place at the Tokyo conference it emerged that adult education might be regarded as :

> An instrument for promoting awareness, an instrument for socialization and sweeping social change (it aims to create a society conscious of the values of a sense of community, and mobilizes energies: self-education and educating others is the duty, as it is within the power, of all).
> An instrument whereby the whole man (including man at work and man at play, man in his civic and family roles) can achieve fulfilment, by helping to develop his physical, moral and intellectual qualities.
> An instrument for preparing the individual for productive activity and for participation in management.
> An instrument with which to combat economic and cultural alienation and prepare the way for the emergence of a liberating, genuine national culture.

A significant contribution which the conference made was to point out specifically that Adult education was a factor in democratization and in economic, social and cultural development, and that it had a role in integrated educational systems within the context of lifelong education.

5.3.2 ADULT EDUCATION AND DEMOCRATIZATION OF EDUCATION

The founders of UNESCO had faith in education and particularly in adult education as a factor to realise the ideal of democracy. In the 1960s there had been a considerable quantitative expansion of adult education and the number of participants increased considerably but an increase in number did not necessarily lead to democratization in these societies. It was realised at the Conference that basic skill like literacy does help in furthering democratization, that the people who benefit from any non-compulsary form of education were very often the already privileged ones, and thus 'to those who had, more was given'. There were number of adults who were denied educational opportunities or who did not avail themselves the opportunities open to them. Thus a purely quantitative expansion may increase the social inequalities rather than decrease them. The Conference dealt with some of the reasons for the failure of adult education to reach the underprivileged and disadvantaged adults. Constraints mentioned were of economic, social, and cultural order e.g. the pattern of employment, conservative socio-cultural traditions, belonging to certain sub-cultural groups, can inhibit participation. The Conference drew attention to constant interaction between education and society. It was realized that the social and economic policy determined the nature of the educational system, which, in its turn, affected social change. New educational goals could not be reached by educational means alone. They necessitated changes outside the educational system in society at large. At the same time, a changing society presupposed a responsive and flexible system of education.

Realising the importance of adult education in a democratic state the delegates at the Tokyo Conference harboured a concern for developing educational programme to meet the needs of "traditionally underprivileged groups" in many societies. Among these particularly mentioned were unemployed youth, pre-mature school leavers in the developing countries, the rural population in many countries, migrant workers, the aged and unemployed. Within these groups girls and women were considered particularly disadvantaged. It was recommended that high priority should be given in development plans to provide wider access of educational opportunities to women, and in particular to out-of-school education.[167]

The delegates to the Conference emphasized the urgent need to increase the the participation of the educationally underprivileged and to give them the chance to take part in decision making and to define and solve their own educational problems. Adult learners should themselves be fully involved at all stages of adult education programmes. Equally important were peer groups in villages, workshops or community centres. It was suggested that it was essential to encourage initiatives by local organizations within the framework of national policy for adult education. The setting up of community schools or centres or local cultural committees or village libraries was seen as one of generating local initiative.

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[167] It is observed that the education of women had been an area of concern in all the three world conferences on adult education -- from Elsinore to Tokyo. Despite the strides made towards improving the status of women in recent years, situation has not changed much. Even today millions of women live in a state of withdrawal from the world, deprived of their very identity. In the decade of sixties only while the number of illiterate men rose by eight millions and that of illiterate women by forty million. (Bataille: op.cit.) UNESCO, reviewed its own policies and activities in order to promote more effectively the advancement of women and their full participation in development. One example of such an activity is UNESCO's successful experiment to educate women in Upper Volta, which had a world wide appeal. (See Appendix VI)

The delegates felt the need for rural development especially in the third world countries. People in the villages were often disadvantaged socially, politically, economically, culturally and educationally. The provision of adult education for the underprivileged rural committees was a top priority for nation building and economic development and also for democratization. Far more educational resources should be channelled into the development of the rich and largely untapped human resources of rural community in the Third world. The Conference took note of the close relationship between adult education and rural development.

The conference believed that the Universities should reappraise their relationship with the society and that the role of post-secondary institutions should be widened in response to adult needs. They should also prepare themselves to serve adults without formal education, through special mature age entry, provided that these adults had the requisite knowledge and skills necessary to undertake the courses of studies which they have selected. In developing countries Universities should determine what contribution can they make to the illiterate and semi-literate masses. Researches can be directed towards the need of underprivileged groups. Further, universities can also contribute by giving periodic retraining to professional staff at all levels. University students and staff should participate more in Community affairs.

5.3.3 ADULT EDUCATION AS A FACTOR IN ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

The rapid increase in technological innovation, industrial and agricultural production today required the working force constantly be retrained and upgraded on all the occupations and at all levels. The harnessing of human resources was an essential part of economic and social development and adult education had to play a major role in this regard. It was mentioned as:

> New occupations emerged as old ones disappeared. Retraining of the segments of the labour force for new occupations when their jobs become redundant owing, for instance, to changes in industrial processes, was one means of resolving unemployment problems.

Vocational training should not be directed merely to prepare an individual for a productive role, but he should be able to shape and control all the processes in which he is involved, cultural, social, and political. Training should be directed bearing in mind the individual's all other roles and his whole life.

5.3.4 ADULT EDUCATION AND NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The nations emerging from colonial rule, can use adult education to induce a sense of national direction and purpose, to develop a feeling of togetherness and assist adults to participate more actively in public affairs. Because national development begins at the grass roots with farmers and workers they must be given the tools of knowledge and skills to improve their living conditions and exert influence on others.

The Conference unanimously agreed that literacy was the keystone of lifelong learning and an integral element of all adult education programmes for nation building. Most of the Member States where illiteracy was eradicated or was near-eradication, regarded literacy as a cause of social, economic and cultural progress. But literacy was only one step, only a means not the end. It was imperative that the acquisition of literacy should lead on to continuing personal development.

It was agreed upon in the conference that to be an effective vehicle of development adult education must be based on applied research. And to be successful, research should incorporate findings from such cognate disciplines as sociology and psychology. Applied research must be concerned with:

1. economic and social benefits to be derived from investments in adult education
2. teaching methods
3. adult motivation
4. intensive study of the barriers to learning.

5.3.5 ADULT EDUCATION AND CULTURAL DEVELOPMENT

It was stated that lifelong education and cultural development could not be separated since they are two facets of the same issue[168]. Cultural development was defined as the harnessing of mental and physical resources of man in relation to the needs of the personality and society and was conceived as a continuing process throughout life.

> Thus while attempting to satisfy the aspirations and the needs of the individuals as well as the exigencies of the economic, social and cultural development of the community, adult education has to perform the function of the creation as it must contribute to the aesthetic, moral, social and civic formation of man; it must develop taste, judgement, and critical sense, encourage positive attitudes by counteracting cultural expressions, whether indigeneous or external, that propagate war, violence, racism, or domination; it must bring to forefront creative attitudes.[169]

Some of the final recommendations of the conference were addressed to UNESCO itself. In general it was proposed that UNESCO should give more attention to adult education programmes, urge other UN agencies to do likewise, and support and promote regional and international seminars, workshops and training programmes. Delegates to the conference were well aware that the Adult Education Division of UNESCO remained weak inspite of the Montreal Conference that it should be substantially strengthened. They urged that an 'interdisciplinary' department should be created and other UN agencies should be equally involved.

5.4 ADULT EDUCATION IN THE CONTEXT OF LIFELONG EDUCATION

Adult education has always been treated as secondary and subordinate to formal education system. It was obvious that most contemporary education systems gave inadequate attention to the educational needs of the major part of the population of any country, the adults. The adults are the people who are immediately involved in the momentous changes of the times and to participate fully in political, social and economic life of the nation, they need to be educated.

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[168] The Tokyo Conference which had before it the conclusions of the Inter-governmental Conferences on Cultural Policies (Venice, 1970; and Helsinki, 1972), also expressed the view that as an essential component of both lifelong education and cultural development, adult education helped to bind them together as the two inseparable facets of one and the same process.

[169] Tokyo Coference, Final Report, UNESCO, Paris, 1972, p 15-16

The inadequacy of educational opportunities for adults had been thoroughly revealed in the course of the rapid social changes of 1960s and 1970s. In the economic sphere, new occupations have been created and old ones have disappeared. In many countries, the proportion of workers in agriculture was diminishing and in industrial, commercial and service occupations was increasing. The developing countries faced another problem in the political sphere, their education systems were more fitted to maintain the power of governing elites than to provide training to their citizens for building new social institutions. There was an increase in longevity and leisure and there was an increase in oportunity for an enrichment of life through cultural activities which were the privilege of an elite so far. Hence a two fold requirement of any future model of education would be to make the life of adults more complete and worth while and see the education of children in this perspective.

The Conference considered that it was becoming misleading to overplay the distinctiveness of adult education, since education should be conceived as a continuous process relevant to all age groups. But, traditionally adult education has always been treated as a poor relation to formal education system, so as long as this imbalance continued adult education would continue to require special treatment. The Conference realized the need that education should not only embrace all age groups, but it should also leave the four walls of the traditional schools and enter into the open environment of society where each incident is a learning experience.

Another important trend of the Conference was the sharing of existing resources by adult education and the regular school and the opinion was expressed that educational planners should take into account the specific needs of adult education when planning new schools or other educational institutions. To avoid the traditional dependency on the school system and to ensure the equal status an integrated approach to adult education was necessary.

It was also evident that the concept of lifelong education was accepted by most of the delegates as a principle within which educational development must be undertaken. The concept of lifelong education in fact served not only as a reference point for much of the discussion, but also represented the intellectual framework within which many of the Conference's 33 recommendations were composed. This shows the rapid spread and acceptance of major educational ideas.

5.4.1 WHAT IS LIFELONG LEARNING

An impetus was given to this concept of lifelong learning in the Tokyo Conference. There was the need to look at education in a wider perspective which particularly concerned international bodies like UNESCO at the end of 1960s. Education received in the milieu of dramatically changing socio-cultural forces demanded a revision of established ideas on education. This examination had clearly shown the deficiencies of current education system and the need to reshape it. These ideas led to far greater emphasis on the whole idea of lifelong education viewed as an organising principle for educational development, and a much more conscious attempt to examine the concept and try to find out what was implied by it.

It is true that individuals living in today's world must be prepared to make learning a continuing lifelong activity. Lifelong learning is not a privilege or a right; it is simply a necessity for anyone, young or old, who must live with the escalating pace of change-----in the family, on the job, in the community and in the world wide society. Lifelong learning means learning on the part of the people of all ages and from all walks of life using the multiple learning resources of society to learn whatever they wanted to or needed to know.

To place the learner in the context of the learning society, in 1976, UNESCO adopted the following definition in General Conference:

> The term 'lifelong education and learning' denotes an overall scheme aimed both at restructuring the existing education system and developing the entire educational potential outside the education system~~; in such a scheme~~ men and women are the agents of their own education.

This definition calls for three things: a restructuring the existing system of education, the full development of all educational potential outside the formal system, and the development of self-directing learners, capable of serving as the active agents of their own education.

The concept of lifelong learning is an answer to many educational problems of today. It is born from the observation, that the traditional school system also finds it difficult to adapt to the increasingly rapid changes characteristic of present time and responds poorly to new educational needs. The amount of knowledge gained in school is quite insufficient for the whole lifetime. School systems, by their very nature, have a tendency, to be rigid and resistant to change, whereas a world of constant change calls for flexible education systems.

From the point of view of lifelong education, educational activity is conceived as a whole, and all systems of education are integrated in a single coherent system.

GOALS:

Lifelong education includes the ideas of "learning to be" and the "learning society". This means individual and social development. For the individual it incorporates the goals of learning to think, of becoming a productive citizen, of learning to act and react as a full member of society and most important it involves a process of self-discovery and the achievement of an awareness of one's capabilities as well as one's shortcomings. As life is a continual process of learning and development so the process of education must also be dynamic, organic process. The society in which the learners participate is also dynamic, transformed by the learners themselves. It is a society whose stock of knowledge is expanding, being evaluated constantly, where the process of learning is as important as its consequences. An essential attribute of an individual in the learning society is the quality of educability---the desire and the means to learn and go on learning.

CONCEPT OF INTEGRATION:

Lifelong education implies two types of integration, one horizontal, that is bringing together of all the various types of education being provided in the society, in school and out of school, so they can support each other. The second is vertical integration, that is the articulation of various types of education made available to individuals throughout their life time. There is a need of integration of aims to make all educational effort complementary. It also means the integration of means to maximise resources and to avoid overlapping of efforts.

The task of achieving integration involves both promoting a dialogue between various agencies of education and considering the priorities in relation to different forms of education, i.e. what aspects of education might best be advanced by what means and at what stage.

FLEXIBILITY AND DIVERSITY:

Another aspect of lifelong education is that of flexibility in content of what is learnt, in the process of teaching and learning, in the tools used and in the time taken. The rigidity, conservatism and parochial nature of conventional education systems has to be replaced by flexibility, flexibility that can be achieved through the use of new media, the loosening up of examinations regulations, the provision of alternative structures of learning styles.

LEARNING STYLES:

New goals, new structures and new needs of learning reveal the inadequacy and insufficiency of many commonly adopted learning styles for the need of lifelong education. As new approaches involve new skills for the learner and new methods of assessment, lifelong education may prove difficult to be adapted in the developing countries where traditional patterns of authority and education (handed down from colonial systems) are very strong. Moreover lack of money and educational materials have always contrived to make the task of innovators difficult. Yet examples of new learning styles can be seen in these countries (i.e. Correspondence schools in Tanzania, Pakistan's People's Open University and the Mauritius College of the Air.).

5.4.2 LIFELONG EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT

Economic Needs:

Before the current technological revolution, occupations were fewer and more stable, so that the learning could be based upon the transferring of knowledge from one generation to another generation. Most people required little scientific knowledge and no formal education for their occupations. Moreover, those people whose occupations required formal education expected to remain in one occupation and one stratum throughout their lives . Changing techniques and increasing knowledge require continuous learning in the professions. In the trades too new processes and equipment demand new skills at such a rate that many workers have to be prepared for three or four phases of occupational retraining in a lifetime. They need to be educated for occupational versatility, rather than trained for occupational stability.[170] Furthermore, continuous learning may help in diminishing the stratified relationships between managers and workers, co-operative and egalitarian relationships are based upon constantly changing knowledge and skills.

Political Needs: Those countries that have recently gained political freedom and aspire for democracy recognise failure of education systems to provide adequately for the continuing needs of the citizens. The enoromous task of bringing about national integration among different tribal, ethnic, linguistic groups is the responsibility of well educated adults. Literacy and general education are fundamental to the process of selfgovernment. Children will not be ready to play their part for several years, and when most of the adult population is uneducated there is a danger of perpetuating elitism so that democratic aspirations will not be realized.

Personal Needs: An individual constantly learns from his experience. Reconstruction and reinterpretation of the experience is necessary to mental growth of an individual while an openness to adopt new experience is the basis. The continuing mystery of the Universe revealed by each new discovery shows the current knowledge, attitudes and beliefs of men. An understanding of this accumalating experience is fundamental to man's ability to adapt himself to change and to his ability to control change. Lifelong education, provides an insight to benefit from these experiences, personal and societal. It also gives an understanding to adults to grow with these experiences.

Industrial society today has largely destroyed the cultural integrity of daily life. Man has become an automation himself and higher cultural values are lost to him. Fast growing material life has changed the priorities. Also art and music and significant areas of human culture have become personal assets of the elites. Moreover, increased productivity has opened the doors of more leisure and holds the promise for all to develop their dormant potentialities. Yet, few societies are devoting even a small part of their educational resources to provide the cultural needs of their clientele. Adult education can provide a chance for personal aesthetic development because here the learner is his own teacher, his own mentor and his own guide. He is well aware of his needs and means to fulfil it, adult education is just there, throughout his life, to show him the way.

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[170] Torsten Husen, Talent Opportunity and Carrier a Twenty-six Year follow-up The School Review,(Chicago),76, 190-209,June 1968

Education must not forget that its purpose is to awaken a need to live not only on an economic plane but also on the poetic plane. One of the major concerns of the new education should be for daily life to become--or to become again--something created by individuals and by groups for themselves. Is the ultimate purpose of education to produce an individual, who has no further need of being taught? In a sense, this is so, because a man forever undergoing tuition would be a man forever under tutelage. But genuine education, rather than extinguishing the need for knowledge, should aim at producing an adult with sufficient maturity to choose for himself the areas in which he wishes to perfect his knowledge or acquire new learning. Lifelong education in so far as it allows free and valid choice of study , is one of education's essential goals.

Lifelong education is more than merely further training. It forms part of a design for cultural development but should encompass the whole man, especially his capacity for participating personally in the management of his professional and social activities.

5.5 PLANNING, ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCING

The concept of lifelong education implies co-ordinated planning of both the formal system and adult education. So far there had been little sign of such co-ordination due to two main reasons. First, the diffuse nature of adult educational activities in a country makes central planning a difficult task. Secondly, the governmental agencies responsible for the administration of adult education are themselves numerous and they are often not part of Ministry responsible for formal education. Moreover, lifelong education was not a popular term until 1970, therefore it was suggested in the Conference that full advantage of the current practice in educational planning should be taken with innovations in those cases where needs arise.

In defining the objectives for the various types of adult education, consideration must be given to the qualitative and quantitative demands of the society. Once these objectives defined the best way to achieve them is a combination of in-school and out-of-school activities. Likewise adult education needed a combination of micro and macro planning. The educational needs of an adult are numerous and diverse, so that as far as adult education at grassroots level were concerned, microplanning should be possible. But, for overall decisions, for the co-ordination of curricula at all levels and the provision of support services and resources planning at national level was considered important.

In order to meet the diverse situations a considerable amount of administrative decentralization was considered necessary. The curricula had to be planned, organized, implemented and evaluated at local level, with only overall co-ordination being handled at a central level. In the context of lifelong education an administrator must know how to draw up plans, supervise their implementation, co-ordinate many diverse activities, ensure the evaluation of results and promote innovation. He must be aware of the functioning of the different components of the whole system.

The resources for adult education, whether derived from public or private sector,vary from one country to another.[171] The problem of financing raised two questions. Should there be a special allocation for adult education, or, would it be better to think in terms of broader strategy, in the context of lifelong education, and cover every type of education regardless of age level. The delegates to the Third International Conference felt the need that until such time as the context of lifelong education became a reality, it was essential to take into consideration the specific requirements of adult education. The need to increase the resources assigned to it was greater as adult education had to satisfy the long-term needs and interests of individuals, groups and communities to which they belong.

METHODS AND MEDIA: This Conference like its predecessors emphasised on the use of various methods and techniques to facilitate adult learning and it would be quite inappropriate to draw up a list of the same. But it was stressed that whatever methodological approaches implied it should be ensured that adult education is not merely education for all but also education of all, and it should be more accessible to who need it. "Ecological approach", the promising approach adopted in functional literacy pilot projects was praised. The purposes of this approach in adult education were to adapt education of the population to the real problems of the changing environment with a view to accelerate its transformation and development, to obtain the participation of adults at all levels of educational process and to give an educational function to the environment.

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[171] It had been estimated that in certain highly industrialized countries, notably in USA and the USSR, the total resources, physical, financial and human, allocated to the educational activities for adults are nearly equal to the total spent on the formal school system. On the other hand, in most of the countries, the portion of the budget embarked for adult education is negligible. In these countries, adult education is too often considered a luxury which can be indulged only when the other needs are satisfied. From Adult Education in the Context of Lifelong Education. UNESCO/CONFEDAD/5. 1972. p.21.

> This approach is based on the thorough knowledge of the living and working environments, on the understanding of the main objectives of these environments and of the people who compose them, on an identification of the problems to be solved in order to attain these objectives and, finally, on the working out of answers which will have to be translated into educational programmes and contents. This approach gives the environment, considered as a set of interactions, a distinct educational function; man transforms himself in it at the same time that he transforms it; the idea is to learn and to train while solving problems in real life situation.[172]

This implied that the need was to go beyond the traditional educational practices. Education had to diversified not only in its purpose and its contents but also in its methods and techniques. Educational technology offers a wide range of media, and the combination of these media, some old and some new, could open unlimited possibilities to facilitate adult education. It was accepted in the Conference that while modernization of education was a preoccupation of all countries, the needs and financial and technical resources are not the same therefore the choice of media should correspond to their specific conditions and needs. The use of intermediate technologies and "basic" technology could be very useful to adult education in all countries. As intermediate technologies could bring development closer to existing social.economic, and cultural structures, basic technologies were considered particularly democratic as they enabled close contacts to be established and maintained among individuals and groups.

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[172] UNESCO/ CONFEDAD/5, op. cit., p.23.

5.6 DEVELOPMENT AFTER THE TOKYO CONFERENCE

Recognition of the importance of rural and basic education and renewed interest in literacy were the major conceptual achievements of the decade.

5.6.1 BASIC EDUCATION

Another important phase in development and adult education came in with the emergence of the concept of "Basic education". This concept of basic education has been developed and discussed by UNESCO in the recent years, but it is based on the old humanitarian values of equality, social justice and human rights. Education as the " inalienable right of each citizen" [173] entailed finding new approaches to education, which were more appropriate, more efficient but less costly. This concept of "basic education" was very much in the development context of the Third World, as H.M.Phillips wrote

> However this may turn out, it is obvious that it is not possible in the long term to establish a new order based on equality, on the lines of the UN Resolutions, if the poorer nations which make up the greatert part of the mankind continue to have vast numbers of their population growing up and entering adult life without a minimum of basic education. Economically this means a great test of human resource potential, governmentally, it makes much harder the task of administrative and political development which these countries face; socially it means tension between the educational privileged and the deprived; for the individual it means loss of dignity and of opportunity.[174]

The early 1970s saw some rather intense activities of mapping out types and structures of education not directly associated with established school system in developing countries. This out-of-school focus had brought to the attention of professional educators different ongoing programmes and training experiments in health, community development and skill-training etc. The starting assumptions for interest in this non-formal or out of school education were the unreformed primary school which was considered as an inadequate tool for educating young people in rural areas. Secondly there was a very large population in many countries unreached by schools, or who dropped out after insufficient contact with school. There were problems of cost and equity too. The poorer the country the more likely was it that the lack of schooling was only a facet of the larger problem of rural poverty.

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[173] UNESCO: Education in Africa in the Light of Lagos Conference (1976) Educational Studies and Documents, No.25 1977, p.28

[174] H.M.Phillips. Basic Education, a World Challenge. John Wiley and Sons, London. 1978,p.4

This emphasis on the poor and unschooled in the least developed countries had led to the realization of their basic needs and to the notion of an educational 'package' of 'basic education'.

The Nairobi Seminar of senior education and planning officials, organised jointly by UNESCO and UNICEF, in 1974, drew up the following definition of basic education:

> Basic education is the minimum provision of knowledge attitudes, values and experiences which should be made for every individual and which should be common to all. It should be aimed at enabling each individual to develop his or her own potentialities, creativity and critical mind both for his or her own fulfilment and happiness and for serving as a useful citizen and producer for the development of the community to which he or she belongs..... basic education should enable young people :
>
> 1. to participate effectively through their work in the economic development of their country;
> 2. to contribute as citizens to national unity on the political, social and cultural levels through service to their community;
> 3. to develop their own personality;[175]

This amounts to a kind of minimum package of education or what Coombs has called 'minimum essential learning needs'[176]

To avoid a tremendous waste of human resources and to correspond to the right of every individual to an education, the establishment of a functional, flexible and low-cost basic out-of-school education was required which would provide a 'minimum learning package' required for active participation in society. This package includes: Conscientization, functional literacy and numeracy, knowledge and skills for productive activity, family planning, health, child care, nutrition, sanitation, and knowledge required for civic participation. The curriculum for the disadvantaged was dictated by the exigencies of living, and is far removed from the subject divisions of the curriculum in the ordinary school.

A meeting of the experts was held at the UNESCO Secretariat in 1974 to discuss the emergence of a basic cycle of education in many countries of the world and to identify the principal issues which were raised by this kind of movement. The pressures were exerted by two very evident facts i.e. the growing demand for basic educational opportunities and the enoromous cost of responding to that demand.

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[175] Hummel,op. cit. p 139.

[176] Coombs Philip and Ahmed M., Paths to Learning for Rural Children and Youth, p 13.

It was natural that UNESCO should take a keen interest in this issue. The Organization had been closely associated with the expansion of education since the historical declaration in favour of universal primary education at Addis Ababa, in 1961. After years of enoromous growth, the Organization now examined the pattern of schooling it had helped to shape. Seventeen experts took part in the meeting, each one speaking only on his own behalf. The first task of the participants was to clarify the concept of a basic cycle of education. It was felt that there had been effective barriers between the characterized levels--primary, secondary and higher--of education, which rendered each stage more or less independent and self-contained. Moving up through this system required continuous success in intellectual aspects of training provided. Most students failed and dropped out rather early in this sort of 'obstacle race', and their basic needs for continued self-development remained unfulfilled. Their 'success' also depended more on social background rather than on intellectual aptitude. Moreover, the academic component of schooling was considered more prestigious than vocational or skill-building components, which could meet the needs of these students who had to take jobs. This again led to undemocratic separation of the students. Also, to provide universal primary education was costly for the developing countries.

The experts[177] agreed that there were many ways to maximize the effect of limited resources, depending on the cultural traditions, the aspiration of the learners, the needs of the economy for various skills, etc. Therefore, it is not useful to search for a universally applicable basic cycle of education. Each country and each region should develop its own solution concerning the content, methods and structures to respond to its unique requirements. The basic cycle should be defined by the processes, skills, knowledge and attitudes which a youth of a given area needs to live a satisfying life. It was to be so structured that the educational experience would be terminal for the majority of those who receive it, while at the same time adequately preparing a minority of students for further education. Basic learning can take place both by formal and non formal methods of learning. These non formal alternative paths could be made available to those for whom formal learning is inappropriate or impossible, including adults who have not acquired the processes needed for an active and satisfying life. Thus the basic cycle of education is not the same as the traditional first stage of education. It should be a flexible experience adopted to the particular needs of the population served; it should provide easy access to various kinds of learners; it should make full use of the educational resources of the community; and prepare the learner for continuous learning and growth throughout his life span. It should help the learner to take charge of his own life, to come to grips with his environment an learn how to act upon it. Expressed in other terms, after completion of the basic cycle the learner should be able to:

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[177] Meeting of Experts on the Basic Cycle of Study, Paris, UNESCO House, 24-29 June, 1974. Final Report, Paris, UNESCO.

1. identify and develop his strongest attributes, begin to discover himself as a unique person.
2. play a productive role in the world of work
3. act in his environment to improve the quality of life, in cooperation with his fellow citizens.
4. maintain himself in the state of sound mental and physical health.
5. be prepared and motivated to continue learning

5.6.2 LITERACY

Literacy never lost its importance in the adult educational activities of UNESCO. The end of the 10 year UNESCO/UNDP Experimental World Literacy Programme in 1975 marked the beginning of renewed international and national reflection on literacy, its possibilities, and its limitations. This interest was due to certain causes:

1. the number of illiterates continued to increase and according to one projection, by the year 2000 there will be about one billion illiterates in the world.
2. Regardless of what development planners, educationists or economists say developed and developing countries alike view literacy as a political right, governed in the political arena.
3. Universal literacy, if it is to be accomplished, is not solely the task of either formal schools or adult literacy programme; it requires coordinated efforts from both.[178]

In September 1975, at Persepolis, Iran, a meeting[179] was called to study the state of illiteracy during the mid-seventies. The experience gained in EWLP had clearly shown that when functional literacy activities were approached from the angle of vocational training, it became necessary to take into account the social and cultural factors which favoured such training or hampered it. The general agreement in the Meeting was that literacy must be fully integrated---politically and economically---into development planning. The purpose of literacy was not just to make the illiterate literate in a short period but it is the creation of a social structure in which learning takes place. The participants of the Persepolis meeting went so far as to specify the structural conditions that would be most favourable to literacy. They included the conditions that allow every citizen to participate in decision making at all levels; those that aim at endogenous and harmonious economic growth; those that do not make education a class privilege or a means of reproducing established hierarchies and orders; those that provide communities with genuine control over their chosen technologies; and those that favour concerted action and permanent cooperation among the authorities, especially in agriculture, health, family planning etc. Literacy is truly functional when it arouses a critical awareness of social reality in the individual, enabling him to master and transform that reality.[180]

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[178] The World of Literacy. Policy. Research and Action. IRDC 177e, 1977. p. 5.

[179] The International Symposium for Literacy organised by the Iranian Government, which took place from 3 to 8 September 1975 in Persepolis (Iran) on the occasion of the tenth anniversary of the World Conference of Ministers on the Eradication of Illiteracy held in Teheran in September, 1965. The "Persopolis Declaration" is mainly an informative document and referes to events of the previous decade, emphasizing the main evolutive trends.

5.6.3 RURAL EDUCATION

Today the adult education division of UNESCO is known as the 'Division of Adult Education, Literacy and Rural Development'. It was well recognized that education in rural areas poses one of the key problems of development. Three persons out of four in the totality of developing countries live in rural areas. By the year 2000, the agricultural population will pass the 3000 million mark.

Throughout the Third World, the rural areas are the least developed. Villages have the highest rates of unemployment, underemployment and illiteracy. In most countries there are increasingly widening gaps between the cities and the country side, replicating the imbalances and the injustices; which characterize the relation between industrialized areas and underdeveloped areas. In most countries governments have a tendency to concentrate their development efforts on on the urban areas to the detriment of rural communities.

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[180] Earlier the term 'functional' had a meaning narrower both in shade and concern for various aspects of an individual's life. This distinction was lost sight of in the context of an "obsession" with achieving unattainable targets in a short period.

The rural areas of the developing countries are the zones of educational underdevelopment. Edgar Faure remarked on, 'the vast, sombre areas of the planet which constitute the geography of ignorance (are primarily agricultural)' [111]. The Director General of UNESCO, A.M. M'Bow said 'throughout the world, it is in rural areas that the shortcomings of modern education are most serious'[112]

Schools in the rural areas have often proved inefficient, they are not supported by programmes to create jobs for school leavers, not followed by post-primary training courses. These schools, often regarded as inferior, have generally not been successful in keeping the school leavers in rural areas or in improving their participation in productive activities. The major target population for agricultural education or rural education is not children but adults who are committed to the rural future. But the education provided in the rural schools of the Third World is often poorly adapted to the needs of rural population.

Up to relatively recent times, the 'ruralization' of education was understood as meaning the injection of a few elements of agricultural training into the curricula of schools in the country. Today it is understood as meaning all the measures taken to adapt education systems to the needs of rural population. Successful rural development requires a great variety of specialized education in various dimensions of agriculture, small industry and commerce, transportation and irrigation, health, nutrition and other aspects of family life, cooperatives and community governments. Training programmes can be provided by extension services, rural training centres, voluntary organizations, radio stations, community education centres etc.

So, adult educational programmes should be functional, and should serve well identified target groups and meet their specific needs. But such education projects should be designated as part of a total education delivery system. Education in rural areas should be integrated with other rural development activities, as education is only one of the inputs required for rural development.[113]

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[111] Faure et.al. op.cit. p xxi

[112] Meetings on the Implications of the Recommendations of the Venezuela Conference of Ministers of Education, Panama 1976.Final Report, p.83.

[113] Philip Coombs, Roy C. Prosser and Manzoor Ahmed, New Path to Learning, IECD, 1973, p. 22.

Mr. Majid Rahnema, the Iranian member of UNESCO's Executive Board, observed, in May 1976, at a Board meeting:

> How is it conceivable that we can open up new methods for integrated rural development and, alternatively, prevent the dangerous trends towards 'ruralization' of education or the encouragement of a cut price education for the rural masses, if these ways do not include a whole number of measures aimed at all the socio-economic, cultural, ecological or other factors, including the school, which are causing the deterioration of life and, in village communities, their deculturation and the flight to the cities are the products of the school ? No, it is no longer possible to envisage serious reforms in no matter what field of education..... without envisaging these reforms as a systematic whole in which everything is interconnected and everything holds together. Education like the development with which it is integrated, is a symmetrical pattern in which it is impossible to change one part without altering the other. [184]

5.6.4 OTHER ACTIVITIES OF UNESCO IN THE DECADE OF 1969-79

In 1975, UNESCO Office of Statistics published a manual for the collection of adult education statistics. [185] Every country has statistics on the provision of regular school and university education. But, when it comes to adult education, very few countries have sufficient statistical data. No meaningful national or international policy on adult education can be formulated in the absence of relevant statistical base. So far most of the policy decisions on adult education have been more subjective rather than objective. Now, in many countries, adult education has been the fastest growing branch of education. Several countries have started publishing national statistics on adult education, but there are differences in the coverage and classifications used and they preclude inter-country comparisons. After the publication of UNESCO's Manual many countries are actively trying to take the advantage of International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) as a framework for collecting and presenting statistics on adult education. A pilot test of the Manual was made in Libyan Arab Rebublic, and other pilot tests were undertaken in Chile, Norway and Peru. A series of national handbooks on ISCED were published by UNESCO in collaboration with Member States. Various international conferences and meetings have passed the resolutions calling on the adoptation and application of ISCED.[116]

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[184] Hummel, op.cit., p. 166

[185] UNESCO Office of Statistics, Manual for the Collection of Adult Education Statistics, CSR/E./15, Paris, 1975.

INSTITUTIONS: A fair number of new institutions were established at national and regional levels to provide technical orientation and assisstance in literacy research, planning, organization, training, implementation, and evaluation. Among the regional bodies there were the Regional Council for Adult Education and Literacy in Africa (CREAA), which had its headquarters in Lome, Togo; the Society for the Promotion of Adult Literacy in Africa, Nairobi, Kenya (AFROLIT); the African Adult Education Association, (AAEA) at the Ahmed Bello University in Nigeria; the Asian South Pacific Bureau of Adult Education (ASPBAE) in Sydney, Australia and International Adult Education Council in Toronto in Canada.

Among national bodies, the National Centre for Adult Education and Training in Iran was established by Iranian government with UNESCO co-operation, for carrying out methodological research and studies on problems concerning adult education and literacy. The Regional Centre for Adult Education (CREA) in Caracaas, Venezuela and National Institute for Functional Literacy and Applied Linguistics (INAFLA) in Bamako, Mali, started functioning.

Many universities and schools of education sponsored literacy studies or organised courses in literacy. For example, the University of Ibadan in Nigeria, the University of Dar es Salaam, the University of Teheran in Iran, the UNiversity of Reading in Britain, Indiana University in the United States and Nice University in France. Courses in literacy had also been included in Teachers' College curricula as in CAR, Chad, and Liberia.[117]

The IILAM and the two literacy centres ASFEC and CREFAL continued their activities with more assistance from their host countries - Iran, Egypt and Mexico. The Institute continued to carry out its documentation and research programmes, and began the publication of a series of books and pamphlets on the training of personnel.

PROGRAMMES: After the publication of Evaluation Report (UNESCO/UNDP) in 1976 some Member States began (while some other continued) large scale literacy programmes, in some cases adopting at national level the approaches or methods developed by EWLP. During the biennium of 1977-78, UNESCO co-operated with 44 Member States, including 21 of least developed countries, in projects related to the initiation of mass literacy programmes, and the strengthening of structures and activities of on-going literacy programmes. UNESCO's co-operation concentrated on three main areas of: identification and planning of national strategies and programmes, training of personnel, and provision of literacy material and supportive equipment for viable programmes.

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[116] E.A.Fisher in "National Statistics for Adult Education", from Hall and Kidd (eds) Adult Learning: A Design for Action op. cit. pp. 180-1

[117] Leon Bataille (ed), A Turning Point for Literacy. Perganon Press Ltd., London, 1976. pp.16-17.

Two meetings of experts in Bangkok (November 1977) and New Delhi (September 1978) examined the situation in Asia and Oceania in general, and in the field of training of literacy personnel and research for literacy programmes in particular. UNESCO also contributed to the organization of two subregional meetings of the Board of Directors of the Council for Adult Education and Literacy in Africa. A technical meeting on evaluation was organised by CREAA with UNESCO's assistance in Lome, Togo.

For the programmes of integrated rural development UNESCO colloborated with other organizations of the United Nations Systems like, Administrative Committee on Co-ordination (ACC), Task Force on Rural Development and more specifically with FAO and ILO. Co-operation with these agencies was ensured through the regular meetings of the FAO/UNESCO/ILO Inter-Secretariat Working Group on Agricultural Education and Training .[188] An Advanced-Level Workshop on Education for Rural Development was organised in New Delhi, India in March, 1977. [189] UNESCO served as executing agency for UNDP assisted projects in the field of integrated rural development. [190] UNESCO also continued to administer projects financed by World Bank loans and credits. [191]

UNESCO executed a few projects financed by UNDP in fields of adult education and structures and curricula for lifelong education; for example a programme of curriculum design for lifelong learning was initiated in Argentina, in Bahrain for curriculum development, in Greece and Saint Vincent for adult education in the context of lifelong education. Similar programmes were initiated in Uganda, Pakistan, Mexico and in many other countries.

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[188] This cooperation was given tangible expression through the issue of the 1976 and 1977 numbers of the joint publication Training for Agriculture and Rural Development.

[189] Managing Education for Rural DevelopmentBangkok, UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia, 1977.

[190] For example, in Burundi, Community Education for integrated rural development project, started in 1977. In Iraq; Pilot experimental project in an integrated approach to education for rural development, 1977 in Pakistan; Experimental Pilot Project introducing education into rural development, 1977. In Gabon, National Academy for Rural Managers, 1971. Likewise in India, Ghana, and Ecuador too

[191] In Burundi - Educational reform for integrated rural development. Nicaragua - Expansion and reform of general basic education in rural areas. Pakistan - Third Education Project Part B. Sudan- Expansion and improvement of education.

The two regional centres ASFEC and CREFALand IIALM, in cooperation with other regional institutes which were not directly connected with UNESCO [192] tried to link their literacy activities to adult education in the context of lifelong education and acted as agents, in their respective regions , for the propagation of new trends which had emerged from the Tokyo Conference.

5.7 LIFE-LONG EDUCATION AS A GUIDING CONCEPT ?

Lifelong education has appeared as a concept which embodies the whole range of education to which human beings may be exposed. In it, all the different forms like, 'school education', 'concurrent and recurrent education', 'adult education','functional education', ' continuing education', are comprised. It also provides overall principles against which the efficiency and to value these concepts can be judged. It can provide means of relating different aspects of education and of setting priorities both with regard to what is valuable and what is not, and also in respect of what means are most appropriate for what purpose.

The most important feature that remains to be discussed is how relevant the concept is, in the stages of development of the developing countries. Looking at the conditions and in terms that a 'new system' of education has to replace what is existing, it is easy to see that these ideas are desirable. To move rapidly from a state of eighty percent illiteracy to a learning society where every individual has a chance to improve his own education may be beyond the bounds of immediate possibility. Regarding the Third World countries there can be economic constraints, in the setting up of new programmes, in new dimensions of training and the design and production of new materials, there may be social inertia to accept any change as they have been living under domination and dependency for so long. Further, there may be great resistance on the part of the elites, who want to dominate and unawareness on the part of the dominated masses. But this situation, which is a continuous malady of tender developing countries,

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[193] ICECU (Costa Rica), SENAI and SENAC (Brazil) and SENA (Colombia).

calls for the need of lifelong education--an integrated education system for all. A change must be brought about through a continuous education to free the neediest and most numerous group (as called in Latin America the 'popular sectors'). Man must be made the subject of his own development , to feel part of a universe, human solidarity.

Hummel finds the system of life long education more suited in the conditions of underdeveloped countries. He wants:

> The concept of lifelong education offers a special opportunity to developing countries. Their school systems are not as deep rooted , not as firmly established, not as rigid and pertified as those of the industrialized countries. It is easier for them to carry out a radical reform. Moreover, lifelong education will heip them to rediscover their educational methods based on observation and participation, which have been buried and forgotten because of the predominance of the school systems which were often imported from abroad. In a certain sense, the idea of life long education may lead to a real educational renaissance[193]

Each society has different needs and priorities. While an industrial nation may have the problem of leisure to influence the the establishment of such a system of life long education, adult literacy may constitute an important side of any system of life long education in a developing country. As some thinkers feel that, "lifelong education is sufficiently flexible and diverse to be adaptable to any country".[194]. But others feel that life long education is not a carefully detailed recipe which can be applied as it stands to all situations. It is a general directive, a guide and an outlook on which education systems should be built. This general concept must be adapted to the realities and needs of the societies concerned.'[195]. A developing society cannot be changed solely on the basis of existing education system but change is needed in attitudes, through socio economic, cultural and political structures . The education should be continuing,progressive and continuous so that those who are being educated must enjoy the benefits of the society which has previously denied them those benefits, and feel important to the political and socio-economic processes of their countries.

Educationally, the greatest achievment of lifelong learning will be integration of formal and non-formal media of learning. This would be a great step towards equality and equity. The urban-rural, rich-poor, elite-masses and other imbalances can be eradicated through the single process of lifelong learning.

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[193] Hummel, op.cit., p. 37.

[194] H.W.R. Hawes, Lifelong Education, Schools and Curricula in Developing Countries, UNESCO institute for Education, Hamburg, 1975, p. 39.

[195] Hummel, op.cit., p. 37.

According to the Faure Report essential elements of reform and change may be seen as follows:

> The concept of education limited to time(to school age) and confined in space (to school buildings) must be superseeded. School education must be regarded not as the end but as the fundamental component of total educational activity, which includes both institutionalized and out of school education. A proportion of educational activity should be de-formalized and be replaced by flexible, diversified models. Excessive prolongation of compulsory schooling, which is beyond certain countries' capacities , must be avoided. The extension of continual training will more than more than compensate for the shorter average duration of initial studies. Briefly, education must be conceived of as an existential continuum as long as life. 'Closed educational systems should be made 'open'. We must gradually eliminate the rigid distinctions between the primary, secondary and post secondary education. Short-cuts and branch-articulations should be introduced into educational channels.[196]

Moreover, the concept of lifelong education does not need modifications in an essentially administrative or structural order. The overall integration of all educational sectors looking towards a coherent policy of educational action goes far beyond the problems of planning and organization.

The concept of lifelong education has also given rise to certain fears, criticisms and opposition.[197] It is said that lifelong education might well serve as a context [198], but only from the point of view of concepts and not of facts, for nowhere has lifelong education become a reality. There are more than three hundred books and articles in which lifelong education has been expressly mentioned, still there is considerable confusion regarding the concept. Though according to UNESCO it is a 'prospect in education' certain theoreticians see it as a 'state of mind' [199]The critics also point out that the integration desired by all at the Tokyo conference obviously cannot be achieved within the existing education system, which was not devised for the adults anyway. Neither could be achieved through the improper extension of the principles of adult education to children of school age. And at the 35th Session of the Intenational Conference on Education, the delegate from Brazil drew the assembly's attention to the fact that lifelong education , if realized, might make the adult into an eternal minor, an individual human being would be invaded and encumbered by endless teaching, that it would herald the domination of school teachers and instead of living, acting and creating, 'man would be condemned to undergo the calamity of an unremitting apprenticeship.'[200]

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[196] Edgar Faure et al Learning to be , p. 98.

[197] Hermann H. Fresse, 'Permanent Education-Dream or Nightmare?, *Education and Culture*, no. 19, Summer 1972, p 9-13

[198] Title of Tokyo Conference , "Adult Education within the Context of Lifelong Education

[199] M.Tardy, Reflections on Lifelong Integrated Education, *Education and Culture*, no. 3, 1966

The defenders of this system say that lifelong education should not be confused with school instruction. There would not be a teacher-taught relationship in traditional way. Teacher will act like a friend and guide, the man will be his own teacher. From the point of view of its promoters, lifelong education is the only kind of education which could be suitable for modern man, a man who is living in a world in transformation. Such a man would be able to adapt himself to new situations, continuously. he will be able to work in groups and tackle problems from an interdisciplinary point of view.

As lifelong education would guarantee every individual the full flowering of his personality that would be a powerful factor for the strengthening of democracy. Since, it would be an overall and homogeneous system, it would make it possible for an individual to resume his studies at any time or to enter into a sector of the system adapted to his abilities.

It can be concluded that lifelong education is a genuine educational project both in the context of adult education and education as a whole. It is an innovation, and that too a radical one. Like any project of this kind, it is future oriented ; it envisages a new type of man; it is the carrier of a system of values; it involves the problem of society and it constitutes a new philosophy of education. it is ideological and it is Utopia according to Bertrand Schwartz, who writes:

> This Utopia is, however, intended to be a practical proposition and we are not afraid to say that what we are offering is not speculation, but a plan of action, that it is a political tool which will allow us to choose today what we wish our future to be tommorrow.[201]

Thus like development, like life itself, lifelong education too is a continuous process leading to a better future.

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[200] C.Hummel, op.cit. p. 38.

[201] Schwartz B. Permanent Education. The Hague. Martinus Nijhold, 1974 p 246

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

UNESCO was born at a time when imperialism and colonialism were fast becoming intolerable, a period during which the European powers, particularly Great Britain, were releasing vast territories in Asia and Africa from colonial bondage, a period in which commonwealth was replacing empire, partnership replacing domination, and mutual cooperation replacing greedy exploitation. It was also a period of the after effects of the Second World War. UNESCO was born among the ruins of war and its first objectives were reconstruction -- rebuilding shattered educational and cultural systems.

At that time most of the social and political movements were directed toward a similar goal, the economic and social uplifting of disadvantaged and underprivileged peoples of the world. It was inevitable that ideologies behind those movements would meet somewhere. It was the United Nations in general and UNESCO in particular which served a meeting place, as a sort of reservoir, in which those idealistic thoughts were stored. These forces, on UNESCO's part, were more or less responsible for initiating the Organization's interest in adult education, education of the uneducated and the deprived. This faith was the reflection of the age old faith held by so many people in the power of education to eradicate social ills[202].

The idea of adult education playing a major part in the lives of men and the affairs of the nations is not new. What is new is the fact that the vision at last shows signs of becoming reality. UNESCO had recognized adult education as a component in development and it has appeared as a world wide movement recently. It is because social, economic, political and ecological changes forced the decision makers of this international organization to conclude that education must be functionally related to life, and that life in this modern and complex world is becoming intolerable and impossible for most people without appropriate knowledge, skills and attitudes to cope with it. Today adult education faces new trends, implies new ideas and policies and continously gains more and more importance. Due to UNESCO's efforts it has appeared as a worldwide movement now.

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[202] But again, UNESCO's efforts in fundamental education and adult literacy programmes are another indication of the failure in the age old attempt to use education (and education only) for building a new social order. If educators (like George Counts) have found it relevant to ask if a national education system capable of building a new social order, how much more relevant the question would be to an international effort.

A time of thirty years is the average life span of a generation of man. Rapidly passing time makes demands on man. No philosophy and no organization is capable of standing up against the urgency of felt needs [203].

This study has revealed that UNESCO's concern with adult education has passed through more or less distinct phases in the past thirty years, which may very conveniently be divided on the basis of three international conferences on adult education convened by UNESCO. The categorization of different transitory phases would include emphasis on fundamental education in the fifties of this century, mass literacy campaigns in the sixties, and the period in which compensatory adult education gained complementary stage, better known as lifelong learning.

6.1 UNESCO: AN INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION

Then the span of thirty years is comparatively a small period to assess relative magnitude of successes and failures of such a big organization in the sphere of adult education, because international action is bound to be slow, specially in regard to education, and it will only be possible to assess its efficacy in the relatively long term.

But as the study reveals, it can be said, that the achievement of UNESCO in the field of adult education is mixed one --it is a story of success and failure both. To understand these consequences we must understand that the limitations of UNESCO are obvious and most of them are been born due to its being an intergovernmental organization. Like other intergovernmental organizations it has high ideals, misbalance of power, caucuses, political differences, and financial problems [204]

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[203] As UNESCO's Director-General A.M. M'Bow has written "Since its foundation in 1946, UNESCO has undoubtedly followed a long and different path, facing countless problems and passing through a number of world crisis with their tensions and conflicts.... The period of unprecedently rapid change which contemporary world is traversing constantly obliges the Organization to review the objectives which it sets itself and the methods by which it works, in order to meet the imperatives of new situations. In many spheres, this sustained effort of renewal and adjustment has made it possible to deepen and broaden a programme of action which, by reason of universality, there is still no substitute in the modern world." A.M. M'Bow, UNESCO and the Future, UNESCO,Paris, 1974, p.12

[204] "International Organizations' Charter proclaims a better future for the mankind; yet, unavoidably, their human participants live in this world. Often their stated concern is Man. Always they are manned by individuals with different predispositions in different roles who relate to each other, to mundane circumtances, and to policy choices in differing ways. Since upon our planet "wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men

[204]. Intergovernmental Organizations put high ideals in front of them, then their apparent failure troubles everybody. Such discrepancies, inherent in all intergovernmental organizations, are puzzling. The organs of UNESCO (discussed in Chapter II) are like those of most intergovernmental organizations. Its financial burdens, like other organizations, fall unequally on Member States (Appendix III). Apparently, the Member State which contributes more holds more power too[205]. Characterstically, its Secretariat is leaned toward some nations too. Groups or blocs of national representatives caucus in UNESCO to extend their leverage on policy issues concerning programme, finance and personnel. And like many other international organizations, UNESCO reflects the push toward development of less fortunate areas. Its programmes have shifted and expanded and have become more field-oriented and more closely attached to other agencies' development-financing initiatives[206].

The development of adult education by UNESCO reflects the the power game of the organization. Adult education programme in UNESCO had been well advocated by certain higher-income areas, notably from Europe and Canada. Fundamental Education had more appeal for the representatives from the States in South during Jaime Torres Bodet's period. In early 1950s, the task of teaching adults how to read and write their spoken language seemed to promise a permanent UNESCO endeavour. With Bodet's departure, UNESCO failed to carry out its plan for a global net work of fundamnetal education centres, which continued on a more restricted basis. The adult literacy plan lost some more of its vitality when primary education became the focus of the Latin

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[204](cont'd)that the defences of peace must be constructed" declares the Preamble of UNESCO's Constitution. "Just give me the quaterly data on actual expenditures; that is all I need to know what's going on." says a worldly veteran of the same institution." From James P. Sewell, UNESCO and World Politics. London. Princeton University press. p.6. 1975.

[205] Since the UN scale of contributions by member states was adopted, it became evident that the wealthier countries were purveyors of assistance and the poorer ones were recipients. The Third World countries, committed to development, were persistent in recommending projects designed to advance their educational and cultural progress while the economically advanced countries were placed in a difficult position of asking for appropriation from legislative bodies, not always prone to be generous.

[206] It has been noted that UNESCO had been generally successful when its project was carried out in a co-operative and co-ordinated way. Experience had shown that isolated attacks on selected sectors achieve little in the development process whereas co-ordinated attempt got more lasting results. But this working in a co-ordinated manner, has pushed UNESCO back to an insignificant status and the limelight of success is stolen by other agencies. UNESCO, of course, is blamed for failure but not applauded for success. Now some of these agencies are even stepping in the shoes of UNESCO and carry literacy and educational programmes without UNESCO's assistance.

American major project. Africans critisized "fundamental education" as a device to be rendered to those who have second class global status and as a means which was not meant for development but to perpetuate the condition of underdevelopment. Consequently, Fundamental Education was abandoned. In 1960, at the Canadian International Conference, literacy campaigns received a passing attention as a variation upon the Conference theme of adult education in a changing world. At the time of Rene Maheu, literacy for adults re-emerged as an issue of importance because Maheu found out that most of the Member States were interested in it. In the period of M'Bow adult education has appeared as a major source of development for the developing countries and is well integrated in the programmes of literacy and rural development.

6.2 CONTRIBUTION OF UNESCO TO ADULT EDUCATION

One reason for UNESCO's survival has been its adaptability. It has grown up in a rapidly changing world and changed with it. In the field of adult education UNESCO has performed an important standard-setting task by convening, at regular intervals, three international conferences. From one conference to another, it has been possible to appreciate the evolution of ideas and the changes in the attitudes, both among educators and among public authorities. Mainly Western European in nature the Elsinore Conference had very little to say on the problem of illiteracy in the underdeveloped nations, which was only a secondary problem for these developed countries. Attention was focused on cultural action directed towards the development of culture for people at large, in order to end the traditional' opposition between so called masses and so called elite'. In these most advanced countries adult education was the concern of the voluntary organizations, so the Conference had highlighted the efforts of voluntary organizations, private or denominational associations and trade union bodies and co-operative movements. The intervention of public authorities seemed to them neither useful nor desirable. Eleven years later, at Montreal, an impressive majority declared itself in favour of the opposite view, while recognising the contribution of the voluntary organizations, it was felt that adult education---an essential factor in all education---should be integrated by the state authorities in a national education system. Lastly, at Tokyo, agreement was reached on two fundamental principles: on the one hand, adult education should be included, in the same way as school and university education, in the general perspective of life long education; on the other hand, the objectives and methods of adult education and its teaching should be radically different from those of education designed for children and adolescents.

The definition of adult education also evolved. It came out of Western European shadow, from the "liberal education of the workers" it became a sub-system of integrated "lifelong education". From the 'individualistic' learning for leisure and self-fulfilment, it became 'social learning' of masses to fight back illiteracy, poverty, and ignorance. UNESCO has appeared as a representative of the Third World countries recently and adult education has come out as a tool for the development of these countries. [207]

Seemingly, UNESCO's role in these conferences was confined in providing a framework for this extensive joint discussion; but taking the initiative of convening these conferences and in ensuring the publication of the resolutions they adopted, UNESCO nevertheless exercised its standard-setting function. Today, the principles and standards worked out at Tokyo, form the guidelines for governments, non-governmental organizations and for teaching professionals.

It is again to this standard-setting function that dissemination and exchange of information should be linked, this being one of the tasks in which UNESCO has acquitted itself with the greatest success. In his final remarks,the Director-General, Rene Maheu, spoke about the swiftness of change and harmony that had prevailed in the Third International Conference on Adult Education:

> I am very impressed by the speed with which ideas develop and spread and the remarkable capacity to absorb and adopt them which the modern world displays. In all the 26 years I have been with UNESCO, this had been the source of constant wonder to me. When one compares the debate which has just taken place with those of previous conferences of a similar nature, the progress in ideas is striking. Where did the concept of lifelong education

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[207] UNESCO cannot disregard the interests of the Third World, because they constitute two third of the total membership and have majority vote. Their participation has also increased in past few years. These countries are well aware now and do not follow the ideas that come from one group or another. For example, as Hoggart wrote that the election of M'Bow, was "paradigmatic". The African States had made it plain that they wanted a black African as Head of a major Specialized Agency. The bulk of other nations decided, severally or in groups, that the wish could be acceded to;(Richard Hoggart, UNESCO from Within, London, Chatto and Windus, 1978, p. 138.)

> stand before the Montreal Conference in 1960, or that of functional literacy before the Teheran Conference of 1965, or that of cultural development before the Venice Conference of 1970?[208]"

Guided by humanitarian ideology of 'human rights' and in an attempt to create 'defenses of peace in the minds of men', the Organization set itself the aim of promoting equality of accesss to education for all peoples and for all individuals, and then adopted a continuous educational system and all inclusive content of education to meet the needs of present societies. This system was named Fundamental Education. Fundamental Education had existed under various names and forms for many centuries. [209] Fundamental Education, as a concept and a programme, was not new or original to UNESCO. Nonetheless, it was UNESCO which enriched the field and gave it a new international outlook and dimension.

UNESCO played an important role in the world wide struggle against illiteracy and did a great deal to 'float' the idea of relating economic and educational development[210] It appears, at that time, UNESCO's policies were very much influenced by the economic thought, the concept of so-called 'human capital', initiated by Becker and Shultz. This school, has its roots in the precept that the process of acquiring skills and knowledge through education should not be viewed as a form of consumption, but rather as an individually and socially productive investment. Investment in 'human capital' not only increases individual productivity, but in doing so, also lays the technical base of the type of labour force necessary for rapid economic growth. And these ideas have been equally predominant in modernization theory and tactics. These predominant ideas guided the mass campaign of UNESCO on adult literacy and functional literacy was introduced. Was it a blind move UNESCO's part? Because most of these attempts ended in failure or in meagre success. Harvey J. Graff [211] is of the opinion that placing literacy in the schemes of development was all wrong. Literacy has been given a vague and superficially powerful role. Economists, sociologists, planners, and governments have found that literacy rates correlate with literally scores of factors, including individual attitudes, economic growth and productivity, industrialization, urbanization, migration, per capita income, political stability, technological advances and many other factors. Graff's argument is that there may be some logic in many of these relationships, but there is little significance beyond the statistical one. Likewise Nisbet[212] and Tipps[213]criticized the modernization approach implicit in the literacy campaigns. There are limitations of the literacy–modernization–development approach, which derive from the acceptance and perpetuation of past assumptions. And still the necessity of literacy as a precondition for economic growth is a persistent theme running through UNESCO's actions and many publications too[214].

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[208] J.R.Kidd, The Tale of Three Cities...op.cit. p 32

[209] Through the road building and well-drilling activities of the Romans, the agricultural and health centers of medieval monks, the early Protestant missionaries, the early co-operatives of the Utopian societies of America and England, the agricultural extension services of particularly the land-grant colleges, down to the energetic and almost single-handed efforts of such pioneers as Frank Labauch and James Yen of our century, Fundamental Education was present in some form or other.(From David G. Scanlon in "Historical Roots of the Development of Community Education, National Society for the Study of Education,"Community Education: Principles and Practices from a World-wide Experience,Fiftyeighth yearbook, Part I, Chicago, Chicago University Press, 1959, p. 38-65.

[210] Sewell thinks, an impetus was given to the concept of education for development because the authorities in UNESCO had wanted to justify their decisions on education. To expand an educational programme, whether it were of primary education, adult literacy or of lifelong education, the decisions were fraught with far-reaching problems of implementations, which meant financial implications. The enterprisers needed a profound theory or justification for financing education. The educational investment advances a general economic welfare had long been accepted in few parts of the world. It was proven tactic for surviving the decisions by allocators of public domestic monies for teacher training institutions. Now a comparable justification was necessary at international level. Education must be recognised as serving to development. Governments' delegates to the 1960 General Conference unanimously accepted the principle As Maheu interpreted afterwards,"that education is a basic component of economic development and that it accordingly represents an investment just as fundamental as the building of roads to facilitate communications or the organization of medical services to maintain health." Economists, for their part, mediated between the theory and practice of using scarce resources, thereby legitimizing allocative choices.

It is true that, in the 1960s, UNESCO followed the current model of development related with education-- 'human capital theory' but it was a well calculated move. The Organization was aware of the pulse of the time. The manifold ironies and complexities of literacy and its relation to socio-economic development were explored exhaustively by professionals in UNESCO headquarters before Teheran Conference in 1965 (See Chapter IV).

By the late 1960s, linear expansion of existing models of schooling and of literacy were under heavy attack at international expert meetings and at UNESCO's regional Conferences of Ministers of Education. By the early 1970s, critical rethinking of the role and content of education, including literacy, had become the norm at practically all international conferences on Third World education[215]. The incomplete dream of development of 1960s led to many other questions. The faith that literacy--functional literacy--could increase productivity, could produce economically efficient individuals, provide 'human resources' was being replaced by the doubt whether it could also produce a better human being, a self-developed liberated well aware person. So, the need to have an education system which could produce a better man led UNESCO to modify its concept of development and of education too. Thinkers like Denis Goulet, Edgar Faure, Paulo Freire, Gunnar Myrdal, and the old philosophies of the Third World countries and organizations like 'Club of Rome' influenced UNESCO and provided a new meaning to the term development. Now it was for man---man who is its motive force and who is its beneficiary; man, whose happiness, not only material but cultural and transcendental too, is a thing of value. The development is like a journey from basic minimums to higher values. This concept led to the ethical development of man and search for more suitable education system to suit this 'new' man. Adult education being based on pure humanism was the first in the whole education system to be taken as an ideal to produce such a man. It was adult educators who wanted adult education as a part of lifelong learning. Likewise, the recent emphasis on total development of man as an aim of literacy programme (Persepolis Declaration) seems to move farther, historically, from learning to read and write, to learning to read and write in meaningful situation and now learning to read and write to learn and act to improve one's conditions of living.

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[211] H.J.Graff, Literacy Past and Present Critical Approaches in the Literacy/ Society Relationship, in *Interchange*, Vol.9,no.2, 1978-79 p.

[212] R.Nisbet, Social Change and History, New York: Oxford University Press 1969

[213] D.C. Tipps. Modernization Theory and the Comparative Studies, in Society and History, 1973 . 15. pp. 199-226

[214] Correlation between measures of industrialization both past and present were established in "World Literacy at Mid-Century"(Paris, Unesco, 1957, pp. 177-189). The measures taken in this book are very general and vague and do not throw any light on the factor why literacy should be considered essential to economic growth.

The emphasis of adult education changed in last thirty years, no doubt, but when one goes through these ideas, disseminated by UNESCO, carefully, one gets disillusioned. Though there is no lack of ideas or resolutions (In the first draft of the third Conference the resolutions numbered more than 150), they are not always new, and it is surprising that they are accepted without serious challenge. Most of the times these ideas reflect the contemporary philosophy and sometimes they reflect the organization's old philosophies (Basic education of the 1970s is more or less the Fundamental education of the 1950s) The resolutions also appear vague and general. This comprehensiveness can be due to compromise of different needs and values of different countries. All the recommendations appear global in nature because an international organiztion like UNESCO cannot afford to be in disagreement with any wing of the world.

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[215] Cairns in Interchange op.cit., p. 22 says that there was no shortage of critical ideas but as the changes in the Third World countries strike directly at the values of of educational bureaucracies, they are seldom greeted with enthusiasm

The other not so pleasant point that appears after a careful reading of statement of its programmes, is the multiplicity of different projects, all of them probably useful in one way or another, but they do not look as if they could link up to form a great educational undertaking. Sometimes it appears that probably UNESCO wants to achieve desired development through all possible channels in a very short time, or this novelty of different programmes is due to different needs of the Member States and UNESCO has to please their needs at the same time.

6.3 UNESCO IN ACTION

Concurrently, with other changes, UNESCO has moved from carrying out almost theoretical action to more and more operational programmes[216]. The operational acticvities have more visible and measurable results and on those activities the emerging countries have placed their hopes. In these developing regions the organization assumed a leading role in providing assistance to national efforts to overcome material and cultural obstacles and negative attitude towards development. Moreover, most of the time UNESCO assumes the role of a 'facilitator' to help to overcome difficult situations, to give assistance with programmes, to build up cooperatively and continue projects, to help financially too if necessary. But the attitude is not paternalistic, it leaves the initiating and motivating processes for the governments, and does not dictate the content and aims of the programmes. Thus, UNESCO was accepted favourably politically, as it has a noninterfering policy from the very beginning.

In the vast sector of adult education, it seems, UNESCO had more to learn than to propose. It learned a lot from the needs and aspirations of the developing countries, from the persisting inequalities and imbalances, from the tremendous pace of change and man's inability to cope with that. Literacy and rural development along with adult education are the burning needs of the emerging nations. Of all UNESCO's major undertakings, in the field of education, the fight for adult literacy was undoubtedly the one which had most constantly come up to the fore on account of boldness of its ambitions and the volume of the means employed. So significant was this problem that it was given priority attention in all UNESCO's activities. In its earliest years, UNESCO launched a world campaign against illiteracy and for the promotion of 'fundamental education'. Though the term fundamental education was dropped officially in 1958, the ideas contained in it persisted until they accepted the term basic education and worked for its promotion in the 1970s. The essential idea was where formal education, in an ordirnary sense, has not been extended, the best 'way in' was the use of fundamental education to improve their way of life. It was more true for adults who live in poverty, ill health and mal-nutrition, and still do not posseses skills by which their standards of living could be raised.

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[216] as 'reflection must be tested in action, to the extent that action can also modify reflection. The two must interwind, for UNESCO cannot be like medieval universities, an ivory tower', Aklilu Habte in an interview 'Prospects' Vol V. No.1. 1975

UNESCO was disappointed by the meagerness of the results of mass attack on illiteracy. It seems to succeed in highly special circumstances, essentially where there was revolutionary change of regime combined with a rapid development of opportunities for using literacy in the economy; without these, it frequently ran into the sands after the first enthusiastic effort. In the 1960s UNESCO found itself at a crossroad; either it could perserve, without great hope, in a massive campaign on a world wide scale or it would have to seek, through a selective and better directed action, the means of achieving objectives that would be limited but more certain to produce results. That course of action chosen by UNESCO was the acceptance of literacy in a wider context to improve the conditions of life, and the abandonment of a mass campaign in favour of selective pressure in situations where the need to read and write can be clearly related to local economic and social development. The judgments passed by the authors of the assessment report[217] of these programmes were ones of disappointment. They recalled the very objectives of the undertaking, and concluded that in the circumstances there was nothing for it but to give up the idea of extending such disappointing methods to all the countries affected by illiteracy. But UNESCO did not give way to this persuasion. The outcome of the experience even if it was negative, was never lost because the lessons drawn from a failure were no less valuable than those drawn from a success.

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[217] EWLP.A Critical Assessment, Paris, UNESCO, 1976.

The causes of meagre success or disappointing results are many. The basic flaw lies in the lack of enthusiasm to initiate. There is a big gulf between the words and deeds and there is time-lag between enthusiastic acceptance of new educational theories and their practical implementations. The Tokyo Conference provided evidence of wide acceptance of concepts and rhetoric. But for action, much was left to be done. This action very much depended on the way governments and international organizations responded to the recommendations at the Conferences. The Tokyo Conference presented governments and UNESCO itself with a 'persuasive blue-print for energetic action'[218], for example, in the 'Final Report' it was suggested that adult education should have the same status as primary, secondary and university education and guides how it can be done (But it has not been turned into reality)[219].

Rene Maheau, at the end of the general debate of Tokyo Conference, said:

> ...All these ideas which are now presented and accepted as obvious had as yet barely emerged, and were far from being readily understood, much less freely accepted, by all. I have a confession to make. I sometimes even wonder if such new, such complex ideas, which entail such profound social and mental changes can really have been assimilated so quickly, in their practical implications at least; if this assimilation had been as real as it had been swift to manifest ~~itself~~ at the verbal surface level, we should now be witnessing changes in our societies which, one is forced to admit, have not occured with the same rapidity.[220]

In a number of projects implementation was hampered by many obstacles. These obstacles differ in kind and degree of seriousness according to type and setting of the projects. No factor can work in isolation but the factors which generally appear, as was the case in UNESCO's many projects, were procedural weaknesses (e.g. overambitiousness of project), unreliable or unavailable planning data, instability of procedure, political and institutional instability, dependence on external systems, lack of resources, geographical and environmental handicaps and so on[221]. Apart from these planning and implementation problems there are a few social problems inherent in the Third World.

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[218] J. Lowe, 1975, op.cit. p.218

[219] "... the Tokyo Conference set the stage for adult education to develop, to expand, and to play a crucially important role in the reshaping of education and of society which is now taking place. No one present in Tokyo could fail to be encouraged, excited and stimulated. Similarly, no one concerned with the follow up of the conference, with the translation of ideas and recommendations into action, will have any illusions about the difficulties. But the creative and positive characteristics of the conference itself, the follow up activities already under way in many countries and, in particular, the remarkable support to adult educators manifested by Member States in the seventeenth session of the General Conference of UNESCO (October and November 1972) give solid grounds for optimism." J.C.Cairns, 'The Lessons of Tokyo', Prospects.

[220] Ibid

Before discussing the achievement or failure in contributing in the process of development of any organization it is better to look at the obstacles which could affect its success. UNESCO's success in the Third World countries should also be assessed against the latter's political, social and cultural background. Mostly all the developing countries of today have gone through a period of colonization. Consequently their traditional beliefs and standards are shaken. Some have lost their national language and religious beliefs and yet have not found the subsitutes for them. Then there is political instability due to external pressures and internal conflicts. Obstacles to development also include rigid administrative patterns of life, modes of leadership and traditional patterns of life. The progress of development may also be affected by inadequate means of communication. At the base, there are illiteracy, lack of financial and technical resources, acute poverty and increasing population which hinder the ambitious development schemes. To add to these problems, in these developing countries there are different concepts of work, time, wealth, and purpose of life, attitudes towards change, status given to women; all these social factors constitute obstacles to development. Basically, there is an inertia to change and change resulting from development may have disturbing repercussions, old values may be shaken and life may be disturbed and people may vote for the status-quo in place of change.

Two other important factors for the success of any project are motivation and cooperation. Cooperation between different working agencies, between volunteers, between governmental and intragovernmental agencies is nesessary. Equally inportant is the public support. Lowe was of the opinion that no matter how intrinsically splendid adult education may be and however great its potential as an instrument of economic and social development, it cannot prosper in the absence of unstinting public support[222]. The success of functional literacy programmes in Iran, Mali and Tanzania was due to this support. Whereas excessive dependence on voluntary co-operation appears to be one of the inherent difficulties in most of the fundamental education programmes. It seemed too idealistic to expect the people to abandon voluntarily and easily their old way of life unless sufficient assurance and evidence that the new way of life does have a distinct advantage over the old. The problem of motivation was one of the most perplexing and unsolved issues of Fundamental Education and it appears that overdependence on voluntary co-operation tried to evade this important and perplexing issue. Today most of the Third World countries do have a record in literacy but the attainment falls short of expectation just because of lack of motivation. Motivation is regarded as one of the principal valuables in educational theory and is the key consideration in all adult educational process. Likewise, success in literacy work hinges to a great extent on the question of motivation[223].

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[221] R.G. Havelock and A.M. Huberman. Solving Educational Problems. UNESCO/OISE 1977.
[222] John Lowe, op. cit., p. 214. This implies that the value of adult education should be evident to ministers, policymakers, and taxpayers, to the leaders and social workers. Getting public support would help in formulating the aims and functions of adult education analogous with that of national commitment in other spheres.

Further, for an international organization, like UNESCO the 'political will' of its Member States is of the fundamental importance in the success or failure of a development effort. Whatever is the role of literacy, adult education and whatever is the content and methodology, no effective policies can be developed unless the political will exists. Cairns[224] observed that without policies, there will be no effective programmes; the result will be the ad hoc amateurism that has characterised so much basic education and so many literacy campaigns of the Third World during the 1950s and 1960s. Political factors will influence the content and methodology of adult education. Equally important is the fact that political will is necessary for the allocation of resources and the creation of infrastructure which is the precondition for any educational programme of any type. Lacking this, all development efforts would simply remain a subject for academic discussion, since there is no way they can be incorporated into programmes which reach the learner. UNESCO being an agency of Member States, was necessarily meshed with the policies of those states, either in general or in pedagogical sense. The UNESCO experience in fundamental education may be given as empirical evidence to the *a priori* reasoning that no international effort is sufficient by itself unless it has a whole hearted national backing.

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[223] It is quite apparent from the past experiences that in a neo-literate environment and in a primitive rural economy with most people engaged in subsistence activities, literacy *per se* is not the practical necessity, and that it is extemely difficult to maintain motivation and interest in literacy efforts for the majority, even when these efforts form a part of a broader educational programme, which is functional too. The aim of the attainment of other important goals, such as creating critical awareness, an organising self-help actions, process of self sustaining and self reliant development make one realize that the through literacy and adult education one can achieve the desired pattern of life.

[224] J.C.Cairns, Response To Graff-Literacy:Another View, Interchange, vol 9, No. 2, 1978-79, p.23

6.4 ADULT EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT

Development is both qualitative and quantitative, as it is for short-term or long-term. UNESCO may not be called so successful in achieving what it aimed or planned through its programmes[225]. But the Organization has been partially successful in achieving short-term quantitative measurable changes as the reports state: the number of illiterates decreased, living standards improved, there was visible effect on productivity. UNESCO has also been successful in bringing long-term quantitative changes. Being a catalyst of ideas it has been successful in disseminating ideas which showed a practical way to the Third World countries and affected their national policies. Adult education has been recognised as a vital part of development by the governments of these developing countries.

Political sovereignty had made the Third World countries, long barred from the road to progress, give voice to their aspirations to development and their fight against poverty, ignorance, disease and domination. In the search for bilateral and international assistance to their efforts, they turned to UNESCO , which worked with the conviction that while the ultimate purpose of economic and social development is man, the essential motive force in such development is the man himself---educated, trained and harmoniously integrated into this movement of development. These poor countries felt that all of UNESCO's activities---intellectual, operational, and ethical contribute to development, as this statement shows,

> Even UNESCO's normative action, the declarations, conventions and recommendations of a general or universal character, have a real influence. They provide an awareness of the tasks of development and contribute to the formulation by States, and they give rise among all men to a sense of intellectual and moral responsibility which leads to international co-operation

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[225] For example, establishing a new 'social order' by fundamental education, or eradicating world illiteracy by Experimental World Literacy Programme, or reforming the whole education system by introducing lifelong education.

on behalf of development.[226]

Today some of the most exciting work and greatest challenges in the field of adult education are to be found in the developing countries, which somehow reveal UNESCO's effect. UNESCO does not impose, the recommendations or policies of UNESCO are not an international agreement binding on the Member States, these are to assist countries in formulating their adult education policies and to help them in implementing them.

(1) It is a difficult task to decide the list of changes suggested, adapted or needed in the developing countries or how can they be brought about by adult education in various national contexts. But these Third World countries do reflect the influence of UNESCO. For example, the idea and desirability of lifelong education is not new. It was taken as axiomatic by Chinese and Indian savants ages ago. It was in practice in the villages of Africa long ago. What is new is the attempt to relate this concept to the needs of all individual. UNESCO gave impetus to this concept and consequently it has emerged as a global principle. Though it may not be easy to apply this principle in practice in many developing countries due to the lack of resources and inertia to change, its worth is being recognised and a few countries like Tanzania and Peru are trying to implement it in practice too. Algeria announced a new national policy in 1974 which stressed the notion of life long education and stated that functional literacy was to be integrated into variety of other in and out of school efforts. This policy placed the responsibility and control within workers' groups for the design of their non-agricultural development and literacy education plan[227].

Education in general is no longer seen as static and terminal, but 'necessary and life long', as functionally related to the business of living. Adult education as a part of lifelong education was perceived as a potentially powerful instrument of innovation and change in 1964 in India[228].

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[226] William A. Eteki Mbomoua, Africa. In The Minds of Men op.cit. p.156,

[227] In Tanzania, in the mid 1970s a large number of so called "People's Development Colleges" were established. These colleges were residential institutions providing courses in both general and practical subjects for ordinary village people---often graduates from advanced literacy courses. Some promosing leaners from these colleges could go to Kivukoni college. The secondary schools had also been encouraged to provide evening secondary education for people, who had not gone beyond primary level of education. These measures imply the breaking out of previous system where the passage from one educational level to another posed great difficulties except for the fortunate few. Adult education has been organised in such a way that makes lifelong learning practically possible, so that people at whatever level they graduate from the formal system of education can continue their education as adult learners, and under certain conditions return to formal education.

(2) In the developing countries an interest has been aroused in the contribution which adult education can offer to the total process of nation-building[229]. Recognising the centrality of adult education to development it was suggested that adult education should be fostered as a movement to bring about the desired social changes and equality through integrated economic and social development. As was reported by Ghana,

> Adult education in Ghana embraces the total life of the nation---to build up a viable democratic state, to reduce the tensions of ethnic conflict, to change values and attitudes to meet the novel changes of a developing nation, to bring government people together in the process of reconstruction. [230]

Tanzania has assigned a key-role to non-formal adult education, in its developmental strategy, along the path of socialism and self-reliance[231].

(3) In the underdeveloped countries where the national resources were meagre, adult education programmes were supported only when they were relevant to national development plans for increased economic production. Neither, an isolated economic approach nor education as such can bring about development. In a communique issued by the Consultative Committee of the Colombo Plan it was mentioned that lack of adult education, as a producer of 'human resources' of skilled manpower caught the imagination of the planners of the developing countries. Likewise, Kenya reported, "At

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[228] "Lifelong learning has become the condition of survival in our age. The integral place of adult education in the life of the people, therefore, brooks no argument anymore. The schools, the colleges, the public libraries and other organised institutions for various types of adult learning, ranging from literacy to continuing education, must be recognised as essential components of the provision for education in the life of the people. "S.C.Dutta, India, in John Lowe's Adult Education and Nation Building, Edinburgh University Press, 1970, p.143.

[229] This may be the reason that it was recommended in UNESCO's Conferences that 'The objectives and goals of adult education policy should be incorporated in national development plans'. Recommendations on the Development of Adult Education, Occasional Paper 34, 5.7, Canadian Commission of UNESCO, Feb 1980

[230] CONFEDAD/4, UNESCO, p.15

[231] The involvement of 97% of total illiterate population of the country was the result of effective working out of well planned integrated learning programmes at various levels and of a fully determined and committed political will. Tanzania participated in the UNESCO's Experimental World Literacy Campaign, between 1968 to 1972. During this period the ruling party had resolved that illiteracy should be eradicated throughout the country. The experience gained, and methods, techniques and approaches adopted in the campaign proved invaluable for the National Literacy Programme started in 1975. Although the eradication of mass-illiteracy was a specific target, literacy education was placed in the context of adult education, and it was planned that literates and illiterates would together attend courses they chose either related to their production activities, like farming, or to their civic participation. The assessment of the National Programme carried out in 1977 revealed that the literacy rate had been reduced to 39% compared with an estimated 67% in 1967. In 1977 the total involvement of learners had risen to 5.8million, or about 97 per cent of the total known adult illiterate population.

this stage of Kenya's development, education is much more an economic than a social service. It is our personal means for relieving the shortage of skilled manpower and equalizing economic opportunity among all citizens. "With this shortage of skilled manpower, adult population had to be trained to be more productive. This has caused the planning of publicly financed adult education programmes in the area of rural development and of industrial training[232].

(4) As it was mentioned earlier in the developing countries the emphasis was on the formal education system. The greater the investment in formal education, the greater the requirements for complementary investment in other factors to get the school leaver or university graduate started in a productive vocation. Today, in many countries adult education is beginning to profit from a rising preoccupation with educational planning. Proposals to reconcile the goals of education with, national, economic, social and political goals often reveal that public investment in certain sectors of formal education is unproductive. By contrast, it was found that an investment in certain types of adult education might well produce economic gains.[233]. After the Montreal Conference it was urged that a fixed percentage of total educational budget should automatically be set aside for adult education. In Addis Ababa Conference (1964) it was resolved that four per cent of educational expenditure should be devoted to adult education. Though this policy was not followed up as it was yet but the response in general was positive [234]

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[232] Throughout the Indian sub-continent the implications of "the Green Revolution" for adult education have been profound. In more than 100 districts of India a new Farmers' Training and Functional literacy Project was launched with the assistance of UNDP/FAO/UNESCO. The early success of this project had pointed to the need of similar functional educational programmes wherever a 'technological breakthrough' occured in underdevloped country with high agricultural potential. EWLP aimed to enlarge agricultural yields to improve the standard of technical agricultural education. Recognition of the economic benefits of such programmes led countries like Cuba, Phillipines and Senegal to concentrate their educational resources on rural as opposed to urban development programmes. In Ceylon, during the decade of 1960-1970 the adult education programme was mainly geared to economic objectives, especially the "green revolution" and the upliftment of the conditions of peasants. In Nigeria, the impact of adult education was shown in new farming techniques which increased the productivity in agriculture and in better marketing of produce through cooperatives. Besides, the expansion of vocational institutions and trade centres has ensured better skilled individuals for industry.

[233] A survey conducted by UNESCO showed that 19 out of 39 countries which answered the questionnaire spent less than one per cent of their educational expenditure on adult education; ten spent 1% to 2%, six 2% to 3% and four spent more than 3%. UNESCO Office of Statistics: Annual Questionnaire on Educational Finance 1968-1969

[234] Though a few countries reported drop since 1960 in their educational expenditure devoted to adult education, most of the countries show the increase. Paraguay reported an icrease inexpenditure on adult education from 0.2% in 1965 to 0.7% in 1970, Kuwait doubled its expenditure , between 1966 and 1971; expenditure in Greece increased by more than 130 per cent between 1961 and 1971. The expenditure of Saudi Arabia was

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(5)The choice of language of instruction is a problem in a multilingual regions like Africa. Many countries face decisions relating to an inherited colonial European language, which has become the language of power. And it has been found that there has been a hesitancy, on behalf of the literacy program planners and implementers, to use local dialects and languages for the medium of instruction. Usually the reason was that the eclectic teaching method has been used, based on standard reading material. And people were forced to read primarily in the second language, given the shortage of materials in their dialects. UNESCO from the very beginning tried to overcome this problem, its very first project in Haiti had presented the same problem. But after initial difficulties newly transcribed mother tongue gives a sense of national pride and integrity. Language planning has increasingly become a part of national development plans[235].

(6) In most of the devlopment plans education system and communication system are treated separately. UNESCO, through its policies and practices tried to prove that it was feasible to plan education and mass media as integrated components operating in a single system[236]. Kidd mentions that in early seventies about 150 programmes in

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[234](cont'd)almost quadrupled. Thailand also shows very sharp increase. Jamaica recorded,"more than doubling of total amounts spent on adult education has been twice as fast growing as that of children education." India, after launching its ambitious plan of National Adult Education Programme intended to spend 600 million rupees on adult education, almost 10 per cent of the total educational expenditure. A noteworthy financial measure was introduced in Nigeria, where ten per cent of accuring income from Industrial Training Fund is to be given as a grant in aid to other aspects of adult education. A Retrospective International Survey of Adult Education, (Montreal 1960 to Tokyo 1972), ED-72/CONF.38/4, UNESCO, 1972, pp 47-48

[235] For example, after the UNESCO pilot project in Mali literacy and language policy had received careful attention from the Mali Council of Ministers. In 1967, the council passed a decree giving official status to a new language transcription system which used the same alphabet for transcribing the four national language selected for functional literacy programme. This policy led to the creation in 1973 of the 'Institut National d' Alphabetisation Fonctionelle et de Linguistique' whose function was to watchover and backup functional adult literacy work and to look at fundamental reforms of all education in order to give Malian youth an education for life in context of their national culture in their national language. This projects also led the country to the path of self-sufficiency as numerous local development organizations in Mali agreed to finance and takeover the operation of future functional literacy programmes.

[236] As discussed in a UNESCO meeting held in Bangkok, on broadcasting in education: The media are not merely aids to adult educator but educational agents in their own rights. Their full effectiveness depends therefore upon integration into a comprehensive program of education. Since people respond directly to and learn from images and sounds (radio, television, cinema, photographs, posters, etc.), it is important to appreciate that audio-visual media are not merely preparing people to use print: they can should be employed in their own right for their educational value, as a part of a system, or independently." Information Centre on Instructional Technology -- Reports and Handbook (Washington: Academy for Educational Development, 1972. From Kidd, Whilst Time is Burning, op. cit. p.52.

functional literacy had been submitted to the Jury that selects the World Literacy Awards. Of these 40% employ radio in some form and some of them. In Colombia, for example, utilize radio as a primary means to deliver the main content to students who meet under the direction of a tutor. In India and in Indonesia, puppets have been utilized as support media. Inexpensive print is also a primary source of their classes. Recently, interest has increased among development planners, adult educators, communication planners in the use of traditional communication channels, such as folk media and indigenous cultural institutions. These channels are participatory and people based, they use local idioms and so are viable means of introducing new literates to the printed word, whereas according to the critical assessment of EWLP, the models of mass communication borrowed from Western countries are not. Popular theatre has been used in adult education programmes in various social setting throughout the world from Mexico to China.

(7) In the Third World countries the national printing houses are not well equipped to produce publications that are relevant, accessible, and appealing to new literates; a viable alternative is the rural press. An example of effective rural newspaper was 'Kibaru', which was created in Mali with the help of UNESCO. To assure dissemination and feedback, the organisers encouraged a network of village comunicators, who were chosen from among community development workers, primary school teachers and adult educators. At present Tanzania is unique in devoting one page of a major national daily to news for new literates that is printed in a suitable vocabulary.

It was mentioned in the UNESCO/ UNDP critical assessment of EWLP that planning for the provision of appropriate popular reading materials is required concurrently with the organization of adult education services of whatever kind. The success of all the major mass education programmes in China, USSR, Cuba depended on the concentration of favourable climate (social, psychological and political) in which relevance of adult education is explained and interpreted. This climate includes pre-literacy preparation and post literacy creation of infrastructure. This environment setting is also being used in Tanzania, Botswana and Somalia to communicate the objectives and benefits of adult education in relation to development goals and to orient people to action, dialogue and participation.

Would this growth had been possible without UNESCO's interest in this particular branch of education? The answer would be, no. There can be little doubt that UNESCO has done considerable amount of work in the area of adult education, it has widely affected the changes which have taken place in the adult education scenario worldwide. One will agree with Kidd when he writes:

> However we believe the changes that have occured in a few decades are profound---in numbers involved, position and status of adult education in most countries as well as internationally, in concept and values, and in theory and method. Despite all that is unstable and incoherent about adult education, it exists now as an established member of the educational family; it has achieved a position of acceptance and responsibility in comparably few years ....[237]

The international cooperation, the increasing demand for development and UNESCO and three world conferences contributed to the maturation of this concept of adult education and development.

Today, in most of the countries, instead of being merely tolerated, adult education has been given an accepted place in the integrated educational systems. Sometimes it still may appear insecure and weak but it is growing and gaining roots. Adult education, as an essential component of the educational system has become a part that is beginning to influence the attitudes, philosophy, methods and techniques of all other components. The international cooperation, profound and lasting change in adult education and its gaining a firm place in the education systems do not happen without plan, effort and guidance. UNESCO provided all the three. Kidd concluded his study with the words:

> Following each subsequent World Conference, international collaboration has leaped ahead. So has the belief that, despite differences adult educationists share concerns, committments, and a large and growing corpus of theory and practice, and can best advance, each in his own field, by collaboration.[238]

But, then, there are certain limitations to UNESCO's success. UNESCO failed in achieving a life-term success. It could not make adult education reach the "forgotten people" as was mentioned in the Third World Conference in Tokyo. The neglected ones remained deprived. There is no equality of opportunity in vision. UNESCO has helped in creating a place for adult education in national plans but its efforts could not reach the "grass-root" level. The projects and programmes of UNESCO could make only a small number of population aware of their needs but could not make the people to fight against those ills themselves. It is just because percolated efforts cannot be that effective; although UNESCO works for underprivileged and deprived masses but works with governments, NGOs, National Commissions, on the will of its Member States.

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[237] J.R.Kidd, The Tale of Three Cities, op.cit., p. 32.
[238] Ibid

6.5 ADULT EDUCATION IN COMING YEARS

As the study shows there have been substantial changes in the sphere of adult education since Elsinore Conference. But what is the nature of these changes, will these changes make the hold of adult education stronger in the field of education system or will it lose its identity, will it be able to withstand the future shock? Or, will adult education be able to withstand this increased responsibility. The answer is not easy but seeing the present situation; with stronger intellectual organizations of adult education, with growing number of trained educationists in this field, with more established institutions for training and research, it is not difficult to predict that adult education is appearing as very strong discipline of its own worth. Further, there is an emphasis on the integration of both formal and informal channels of education and there is a call for cooperation among national and international movements of adult education, for good relationship between governments and international council for adult education, to develop collaboration among different nations. The hope of UNESCO is that adult education will be regarded as an evolving field which will likely affect all sectors of cultural development in the spirit of furthering the right to education and culture and will be considered in the context of lifelong education. Contrary to this thought, few educationists think that adult education as a field of study will lose its identity; or it will wither and and dissolve completely with the introduction of education permanente. First, the day has not come when lifelong education has been applied anywhere in the full sense and even if it is applied it seems inprobable, in the near future, that adult education will be totally merged in a comprehensive lifelong system anymore than elementary, secondary or university education. The strongest proponents of lifelong education are adult educationists themselves and 'diminution in strength of adult education would result in a set back to the notion of education permanente."[239] Still, there is a continued hope for substantial changes in the education system with more harmony and larger integrations.

This concept of 'lifelong learning' breaks away from the syndrome of institutionalised education. According to this process there would not be any time when one 'has to' learn but opportunity would always be there for a person to flow back to the stream of learning experiences. Lengrand has written that just as education is responsible to assist a human being throughout his life to maintain the continuity of his learning, it should also be responsible for the development of the man to his highest and truest degree[240]. While this concept has become quite prominent in the advanced and literate countries in past few years as a philosophy and quite a few countries have adopted it in practice too (as Sweden) it did not seem applicable in the Third World countries with magnitude of problems. The main weakness of these developing countries was that while the need of adult education was generally accepted, its full significance was not widely understood. The adult education was thought of as provision for those who had no or insufficient school education, for the deprived and underprivileged ones, (and this concept perpetuates inequality). But adult education must not be regarded as a luxury for a few exceptional persons here and there, nor as a thing which concerns only a short span of early manhood. On the contrary, adult education is a permanent national necessity, an inseparable aspect of citizenship, and therefore should be both universal and lifelong[241]. Adult education is not merely a sort of compensation for the omissions of childhood. It has to be given wider meaning and has to be inclusive of education both for the educated and the uneducated. It has, consequently, to cater for the needs of the entire adult population of all ages and of all degrees of ability and aptitudes. Interpreted thus, adult education, is the means to the discovery of the multiplicity of interests and their purpose in life. It has to give new modes of expression to the individual and these are, under no circumtances whatever, to be restricted to reading and writing only.

In coming years the Third World countries have to adopt this philosophy in practice too. If adult education is to contribute to development, it must be part of lifelong education, integrated and inseparable from it. It is not something which can be put into a box and taken out for certain periods of the day or week---or certain periods of life[242]. The centrality of adult education to development demands integration of adult education into the overall education system, which in turn, must be integrated with national development plans. Adult education should be fostered as a movement to bring about the desired social changes and equality through integrated economic and social developments. All the developing countries of the world need the maximum contribution of each citizen, who is aware of the improvement and contribution he is making. Only well integrated adult education can help him to understand his contributions.

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[239] J.R. Kidd, op.cit., 1974, p 33

[240] Paul Lengrad, An Introduction to Lifelong Education, UNESCO, pp 44-45.

[241] A.L.Smith, Ministry of Reconstruction Great Britain, Adult Education Committee, p.55

Probably Adiseshiah is right in dreaming that in 2001, education will be lifelong and both the formal and non-formal system of education will be functional in the 21st century so that what one learns in these systems can be applied in solving individual and community problems. Such a commitment to lifelong education would help in realizing the global objectives of integrated development. UNESCO with its multi-pronged attack against backwardness, poverty, ignorance, illiteracy must help in making this futuristic dream come true.

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[242] Bataille, op.cit., Preface, vii

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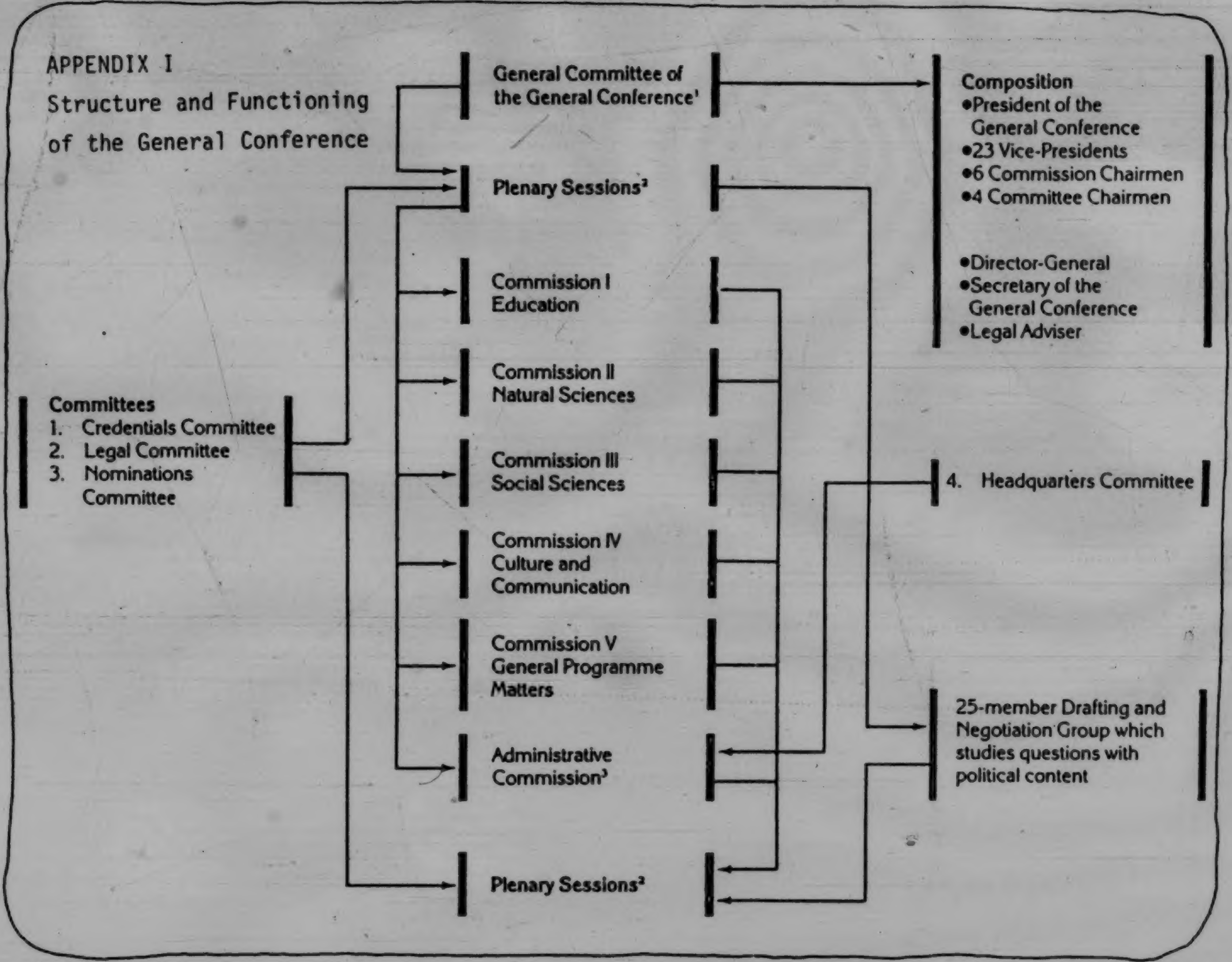
APPENDIX I

Structure and Functioning of the General Conference


General Committee of the General Conference[1]
Composition
•President of the General Conference
•23 Vice-Presidents
•6 Commission Chairmen
•4 Committee Chairmen
•Director-General
•Secretary of the General Conference
•Legal Adviser
Plenary Sessions[2]
Committees
1. Credentials Committee
2. Legal Committee
3. Nominations Committee
Commission I Education
Commission II Natural Sciences
Commission III Social Sciences
4. Headquarters Committee
Commission IV Culture and Communication
Commission V General Programme Matters
25-member Drafting and Negotiation Group which studies questions with political content
Administrative Commission[3]
Plenary Sessions[2]

Source: UNESCO, Occasional Paper 36, Ottawa: Canadian Commission for UNESCO.

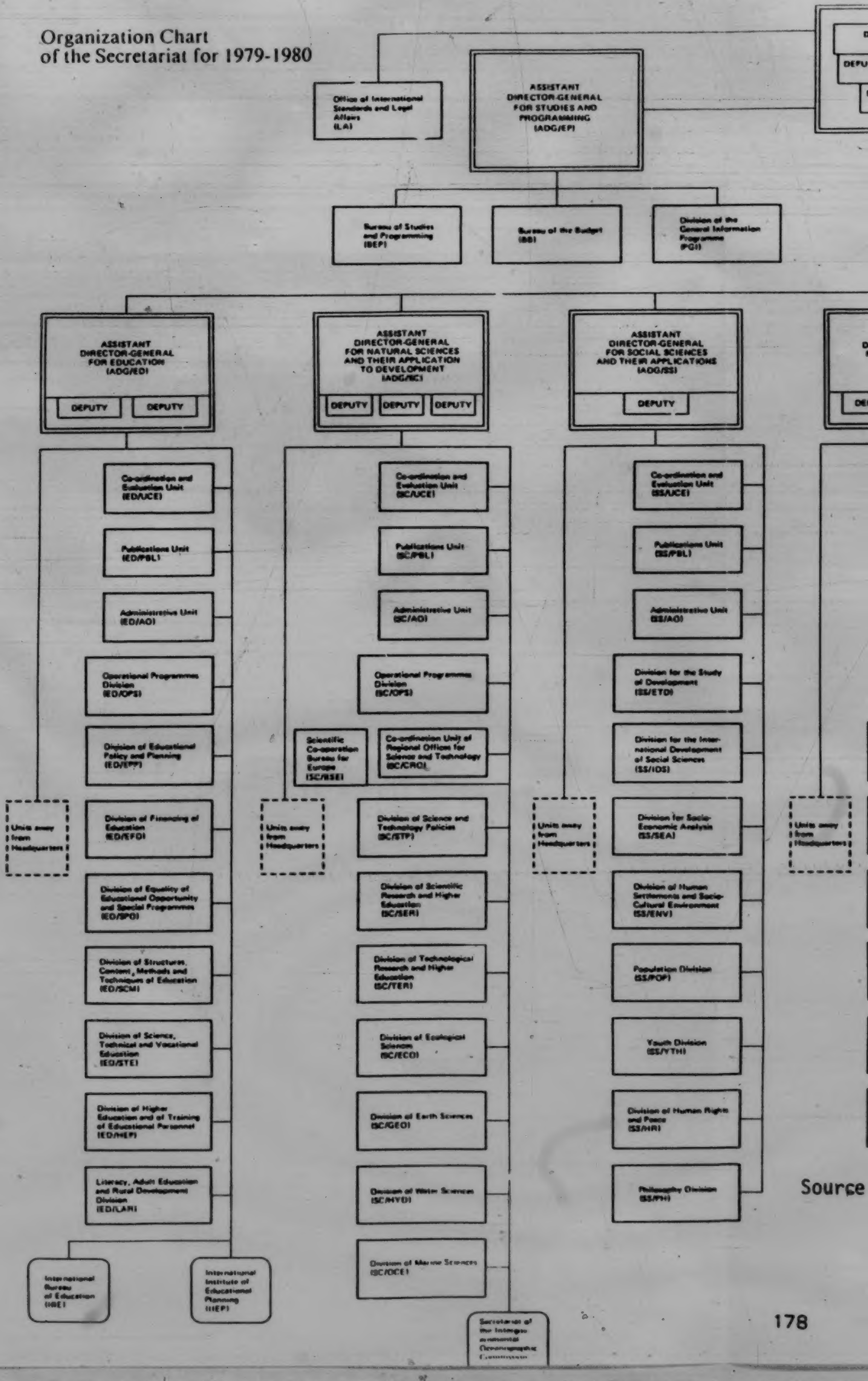
Explanation of Appendix 1

1. The General Committee helps the President organize the work to be done at the General Conference, decides what new questions will be added to the agenda and makes recommendations to the Conference on all relevant questions submitted to it by the President, the Director-General, its own members and Member States.

2. It is in the plenary sessions that the General Conference plays its role as sovereign body and makes decisions. Specifically, it studies the Director-General's report on the Organization's activities, the draft programs and budget, approves the commissions' recommendations on the committees' program activities, votes funds for the coming biennial period and elects the members of the Executive Board.

3. The commissions, divided into groups of three, meet at the same time as the plenary sessions, according to a pre-determined schedule. They study the draft programs and budget in accordance with their areas of authority, and examine the draft resolutions submitted by Member States concerning aspects of the draft program and any other questions referred to them by the Conference plenary sessions. They also submit recommendations for examination and approval by the General Conference: these result in the resolutions upon which the actions of the Director-General are based.

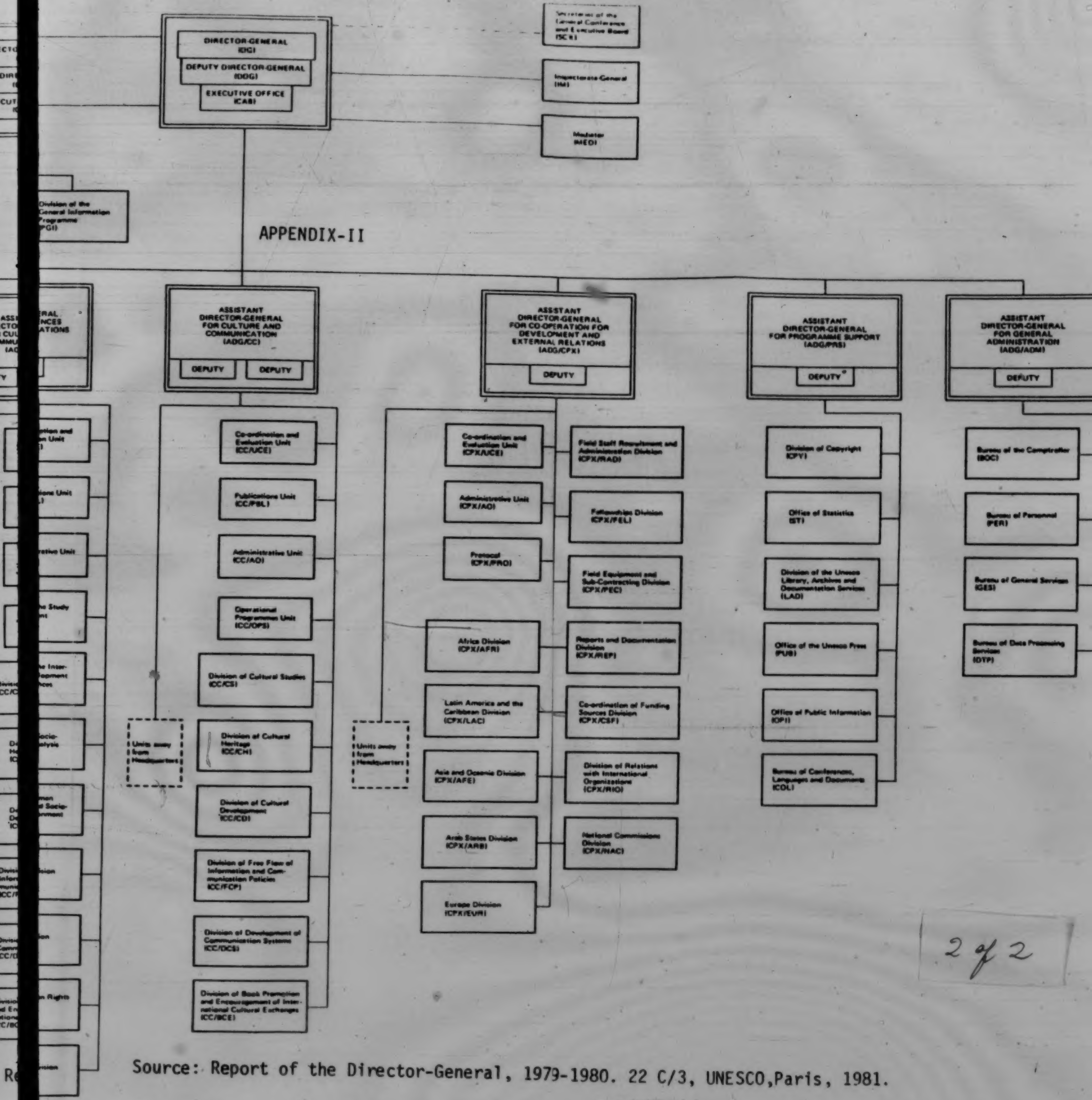
Organization Chart
of the Secretariat for 1979-1980


Office of International Standards and Legal Affairs (LA)
ASSISTANT DIRECTOR-GENERAL FOR STUDIES AND PROGRAMMING (ADG/EP)
DEPU
Bureau of Studies and Programming (BEP)
Bureau of the Budget (BB)
Division of the General Information Programme (PGI)
ASSISTANT DIRECTOR-GENERAL FOR EDUCATION (ADG/ED)
DEPUTY
DEPUTY
Co-ordination and Evaluation Unit (ED/UCE)
Publications Unit (ED/PBL)
Administrative Unit (ED/AO)
Operational Programmes Division (ED/OPS)
Division of Educational Policy and Planning (ED/EPP)
Units away from Headquarters
Division of Financing of Education (ED/EFO)
Division of Equality of Educational Opportunity and Special Programmes (ED/SPO)
Division of Structures, Content, Methods and Techniques of Education (ED/SCM)
Division of Science, Technical and Vocational Education (ED/STE)
Division of Higher Education and of Training of Educational Personnel (ED/HEP)
Literacy, Adult Education and Rural Development Division (ED/LAR)
International Bureau of Education (IBE)
International Institute of Educational Planning (IIEP)
ASSISTANT DIRECTOR-GENERAL FOR NATURAL SCIENCES AND THEIR APPLICATION TO DEVELOPMENT (ADG/SC)
DEPUTY
DEPUTY
DEPUTY
Co-ordination and Evaluation Unit (SC/UCE)
Publications Unit (SC/PBL)
Administrative Unit (SC/AO)
Operational Programmes Division (SC/OPS)
Scientific Co-operation Bureau for Europe (SC/BSE)
Co-ordination Unit of Regional Offices for Science and Technology (SC/CRO)
Units away from Headquarters
Division of Science and Technology Policies (SC/STP)
Division of Scientific Research and Higher Education (SC/SER)
Division of Technological Research and Higher Education (SC/TER)
Division of Ecological Sciences (SC/ECO)
Division of Earth Sciences (SC/GEO)
Division of Water Sciences (SC/HYD)
Division of Marine Sciences (SC/OCE)
Secretariat of the Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission
ASSISTANT DIRECTOR-GENERAL FOR SOCIAL SCIENCES AND THEIR APPLICATIONS (ADG/SS)
DEPUTY
Co-ordination and Evaluation Unit (SS/UCE)
Publications Unit (SS/PBL)
Administrative Unit (SS/AO)
Division for the Study of Development (SS/ETD)
Division for the International Development of Social Sciences (SS/IDS)
Units away from Headquarters
Division for Socio-Economic Analysis (SS/SEA)
Division of Human Settlements and Socio-Cultural Environment (SS/ENV)
Population Division (SS/POP)
Youth Division (SS/YTH)
Division of Human Rights and Peace (SS/HR)
Philosophy Division (SS/PH)
Units away from Headquarters

Source

1 of

APPENDIX-II


DIRECTOR-GENERAL (DG)
DEPUTY DIRECTOR-GENERAL (DDG)
EXECUTIVE OFFICE (CAB)
Secretariat of the General Conference and Executive Board (SCX)
Inspectorate-General (IGI)
Mediator (MED)
Division of the General Information Programme (PGI)
ASSISTANT DIRECTOR-GENERAL FOR CULTURE AND COMMUNICATION (ADG/CC)
DEPUTY
DEPUTY
Co-ordination and Evaluation Unit (CC/UCE)
Publications Unit (CC/PBL)
Administrative Unit (CC/AO)
Operational Programmes Unit (CC/OPS)
Division of Cultural Studies (CC/CS)
Division of Cultural Heritage (CC/CH)
Division of Cultural Development (CC/CD)
Division of Free Flow of Information and Communication Policies (CC/FCP)
Division of Development of Communication Systems (CC/DCS)
Division of Book Promotion and Encouragement of International Cultural Exchanges (CC/BCE)
Units away from Headquarters
ASSISTANT DIRECTOR-GENERAL FOR CO-OPERATION FOR DEVELOPMENT AND EXTERNAL RELATIONS (ADG/CPX)
DEPUTY
Co-ordination and Evaluation Unit (CPX/UCE)
Administrative Unit (CPX/AO)
Protocol (CPX/PRO)
Africa Division (CPX/AFR)
Latin America and the Caribbean Division (CPX/LAC)
Asia and Oceania Division (CPX/AFE)
Arab States Division (CPX/ARB)
Europe Division (CPX/EUR)
Field Staff Recruitment and Administration Division (CPX/RAD)
Fellowships Division (CPX/FEL)
Field Equipment and Sub-Contracting Division (CPX/PEC)
Reports and Documentation Division (CPX/REP)
Co-ordination of Funding Sources Division (CPX/CSF)
Division of Relations with International Organizations (CPX/RIO)
National Commissions Division (CPX/NAC)
Units away from Headquarters
ASSISTANT DIRECTOR-GENERAL FOR PROGRAMME SUPPORT (ADG/PRS)
DEPUTY*
Division of Copyright (CPY)
Office of Statistics (ST)
Division of the Unesco Library, Archives and Documentation Services (LAD)
Office of the Unesco Press (PUB)
Office of Public Information (OPI)
Bureau of Conferences, Languages and Documents (COL)
ASSISTANT DIRECTOR-GENERAL FOR GENERAL ADMINISTRATION (ADG/ADM)
DEPUTY
Bureau of the Comptroller (BOC)
Bureau of Personnel (PER)
Bureau of General Services (GES)
Bureau of Data Processing Services (DTP)

Source: Report of the Director-General, 1979-1980. 22 C/3, UNESCO,Paris, 1981.

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* This rôle will be played by one of the Directors of Office, Bureau or Division of the Sector.

Appendix III

Membership of UNESCO and Contributions

Member	Percentage	Amount (US $)
Afghanistan	0.01	14 520
Albania	0.01	14 520
Algeria	0.10	145 200
Angola	0.02	29 040
Argentina	0.83	1 205 160
Australia	1.52	2 207 040
Austria	0.63	914 760
Bahrain	0.01	14 520
Bangla Desh	0.04	58 080
Barbados	0.01	14 520
Belgium	1.07	1 553 640
Benin	0.01	14 520
Bolivia	0.01	14 520
Brazil	1.03	495 560
Bulgaria	0.14	203 280
Burma	0.01	14 520
Burundi	0.01	14 520
Byelorussia	0.04	580 800
Canada	3.01	4 370 520
Cape Verde	0.01	14 520
Cental African Empire	0.01	14 520
Chad	0.01	14 520
Chile	0.09	130 680
China	5.45	7 913 400
Colombia	0.11	159 720
Comoros	0.01	14 520
Congo	0.01	14 520
Costa Rica	0.02	29 040
Cuba	0.11	159 720
Cyprus	0.01	14 520
Czechoslovakia	0.83	1 205 160
Democratic Kampuchea	0.01	14 520
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	0.05	72 600
Democratic Yemen	0.01	14 520
Denmark	0.63	914 760
Dominican Rebublic	0.02	29 040
Ecuador	0.02	29 040
Egypt	0.08	116 160
El Salvador	0.01	14 520
Ethiopia	0.01	14 520
Finland	0.43	624 360
France	5.77	8 378 040
Gabon	0.01	14 520
Gambia	0.01	14 520
German Democratic Republic	1.32	1 916 640
Germany	7.63	11 078 760
Ghana	0.02	29 040
Greece	0.35	508 200
Grenada	0.01	14 520
Guatemala	0.02	29 040
Guinea	0.01	14 520
Guinea-Bissau	0.01	14 520
Guyana	0.01	14 520

Member	Percentage	Amount (US $)
Haiti	0.01	14 520
Honduras	0.01	14 520
Hungary	0.33	479 160
Iceland	0.02	29 040
India	0.67	972 840
Indonesia	0.14	203 280
Iran	0.40	580 800
Iraq	0.08	116 160
Ireland	0.15	217 800
Isareal	0.23	333 960
Italy	3.35	4 864 200
Ivory Coast	0.02	29 040
Jamaica	0.02	29 040
Japan	8.56	12 429 120
Jordan	0.01	14 520
Kenya	0.01	14 520
Kuwait	0.15	217 800
Laos People's Demo. Repub.	0.01	14 520
Lebnon	0.03	43 560
Lesotho	0.01	14 520
Liberia	0.01	14 520
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	0.16	232 320
Luxembourg	0.04	58 080
Madagascar	0.01	58 080
Malawi	0.01	14 520
Malaysia	0.09	130 680
Mali	0.01	14 520
Malta	0.01	14 520
Mauritania	0.01	14 520
Mauritius	0.01	14 520
Mexico	0.78	1 132 560
Monaco	0.01	14 520
Mongolia	0.01	14 520
Morocco	0.05	72 600
Mozambique	0.02	29 040
Nambia*	-	
Nepal	0.01	14 520
Netherlands	1.41	2 047 320
New Zealand	0.25	363 000
Nicargua	0.01	14 520
Niger	0.01	14 520
Nigeria	0.13	188 760
Norway	0.44	638 880
Oman	0.01	14 520
Pakistan	0.07	101 640
Panama	0.02	29 040
Papua New Guinea	0.01	14 520
Paraguay	0.01	14 520
Peru	0.06	87 120
Philippines	0.01	145 200
Poland	1.38	2 003 760
Portugal	0.19	275 880
Qatar	0.02	29 040
Republic of Korea	0.13	188 760
Romania	0.24	348 480
Rwanda	0.01	14 520
San Marino	0.01	14 520
Saudi Arabia	0.23	333 960
Senegal	0.01	14 520

Member	Percentage	Amount (US $)
Seychelles	0.01	14 520
Sierra Leone	0.01	14 520
Singapore	0.08	116 160
Somalia	0.01	14 520
Spain	1.51	2 192 520
Sri Lanka	0.02	29 040
Sudan	0.01	14 520
Suriname	0.01	14 520
Swaziland	0.01	14 520
Sweden	1.23	1 785 960
Switzerland	0.95	1 379 400
Syrian Arab Republic	0.02	29 040
Thailand	0.01	145 200
Togo	0.01	14 520
Trinidad and Tobago	0.03	43 560
Tunisia	0.02	29 040
Turkey	0.30	435 600
Uganda	0.01	14 520
Ukrainian SSR	1.51	2 192 520
USSR	11.49	16 683 480
United Arab Emirates	0.07	101 640
United Kingdom	4.48	6 504 960
United Republic of Cameroon	0.01	14 520
United Republic of Tanzania	0.01	14 520
United States	25.00	36 000 000
Upper Volta	0.01	14 520
Uruguay	0.04	58 080
Venezuela	0.39	566 280
Viet Nam	0.03	43 560
Yemen	0.01	14 520
Yugoslavia	0.39	566 280
Zaire	0.02	29 040
Zambia	0.02	29 040
TOTAL	100.00	145 200 000
Associate Member		
British Eastern Caribbean Group	0.01	14 520

* Became a member on 2 November, after the contributions for the biennium 1979-1980 had been set by the 1978 session of the General Conference of UNESCO. Its contribution was not assessed in 1978.

Source : Yearbook of the United Nations, vol. 32, 1978, New York; Department of Public Informations, United Nations, p. 1105-06.

APPENDIX IV: The Marbial Valley Project

UNESCO's earliest efforts in fundamental and adult education were in a 'sick' valley in Haiti called Marbial Valley. The Republic of Haiti occupies the western portion of the island of Haiti and St. Domingo, which is set in the Caribbean archipelago 50 miles east of Cuba. One of the smallest of American Republics, with an area of 10,700 square miles, it had nevertheless the greatest density of population, estimated at an average of 260 per square mile. Its Government was aware of the urgency of country's problem and was positive that UNESCO could make main contribution to reduce illiteracy and provide people that elementary knowledge and skills which would enable them to improve their living conditions.

In 1947, the Haitian government presented UNESCO with a plan for a project of fundamental education in their country. The project, started at the invitation of the Haitian government was a pilot project[343], which, it was hoped, would show the way for similar experiments elsewhere. According to the general policy of UNESCO, the selection of the site was left to the Haiti government, and they chose the rural area of Marbial Valley with a population of about 28,000. The project area, around the village of Marbial, was situated on the Gosseline river, about twelve difficult and torturous miles inland from the port of Jacmel. Once a fertile area, it had become progressively ruined by deforestation and erosion until an expanding population pressed for mere subsistence upon the narrow lands bordering the river. The people of Marbial Valley---97% of them were illiterate---were subject to such diseases as yaws, malaria, tuberculosis, and hookworm. At that time, in 1947, after an eleven-month drought, this region was plagued by overpopulation, soil erosion, deforestation and declining agriculture, consequently by poverty, undernourishment and illiteracy-- all the problems were there which are found in many underdeveloped areas.

The Beginning

For the first time a fundamental education pilot project on an international scale had confronted and defined the problem on the spot. The purpose of the UNESCO project was to attack illiteracy and to provide the people with elementary instruction and a few simple skills that would help them raise their standard of living. This meant using fundamental education as a means of improving existing methods of cultivation and soil conservation, of promoting the development of small industries and of improving health conditions. With this objective of raising the social and economic level of the community the other objectve of the project was to train up Haitian staff so that it may become self-supporting as rapidly as possible. The training period of five years was considered sufficient.

It was to be a joint undertaking by the Haitian government and UNESCO. At the early stage, UNESCO had to appoint a director of the project and had asked the United Nations and its specialized agencies to co-operate by supplying qualified persons. The cost of operations for the first year had been assessed by the Haitian authorities, in consultation with UNESCO staff members, at $66,000. The General Conference, meeting in Mexico City in November 1947, resolved that UNESCO should contribute 20% of the total sum, which was $13,200, and should provide the salaries to expert staff, the remainder of $66,000 was to be contributed by Haitian Government or by outside agencies.

The Working Plan

After much discussions with organizations and foundations from which the assistance was sought the Sectretariat of UNESCO prepared a working plan.

The working plan stated that for any scheme for education and social improvement in an underdeveloped area a basic sociological and ecological survey was necessary. It was planned that concurrently with this survey, and with the co-operation of the responsible sociologist, the programme of Fundamental Education would develop

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[343] As a part of UNESCO's programme in the area of fundamental education, the General Conference at its First Session had advocated the setting up of a limited number of Pilot-Projects. These were considered as experiments, to be carried out by National Governments in cooperation with UNESCO. The results achieved would, it was hoped , influence the rest of the country and through UNESCO's Education Clearing House could be made known to different institutions, government departments and agencies facing similar problems in all UNESCO'a Member States.

in along two closely realed lines of activity:
(A) Community Fundamental Education.
(B) Training for Young Haitians.
The programme had to comprise:
(a) Primary schooling for children and general adult education for men and women to combat ignorance and illiteracy.
(b) Auxiliary language teaching (French fromn Creole).
(c) Health education and medical sevices (under experts appointed by WHO)
(d) Agricultural and veterinary education and extension work.(under the guidance of FAO)
(e) Community cultural activities based on rudimentary library, museum and arts centre.
(f) Establishment of small industries and rural crafts and producer and consumer co-operatives.

All these activities were to be integrated into a community education scheme and for the first time three Specialized agencies of the United Nations---UNESCO, WHO, and FAO---had to work together.

Administration

UNESCO's Project Director, who had to work in the closest co-operation with the Haitian Government and Education Authorities, was responsible for the programme. It was the duty of the Project Director to administer the programme in accordance with the agreements[244].

It was suggested in the working plan that a National Co-operating Committee for Fundamental Education of the National Commission of Haiti should be formed in Port-au-Prince to act as a national advisory body on Fundamental Education and that the Ditector of the project should be among its members. It was further suggested that a local Fundamental Education Advisory Committee should be formed of leading personalities of Jacmel and Marbial, who had interest in the pilot-project, including some of the people of the Valley.

The other Specialized Agencies---WHO and FAO---had appointed Expert Consultants in Health and Agriculture, who were responsible for services and training in these fields under the overall direction of UNESCO's Project Director.

Implementation

As it was decided that a careful sociological and ecological survey of the area should be made prior to commencing operations, Dr. Alfred Metraux, an anthropologist on the staff of the Economic and Social Department of the United Nations, was transferred to UNESCO's staff to carry out the work. The Viking Fund of New York generously gave a grant of $9,000, including as a pre-doctorate fellowship for a Haitian to assist Dr. Metraux in making the survey. [245]

While a survey of the area was being carried over, due to apparent eagerness of the Haitian authorities and particularly of the Marbial peasants, some health and educational activities were started as a first step in a programme of self-help[246].

After a prolonged delay, UNESCO finally appointed its first director, who assumed his duties in June, 1949. He became embroiled in a dispute with a Haitian official who had been carrying out the limited operations. This officials' dispute brought the project to a standstill and necessiated the withdrawal of both persons by UNESCO and the government.

At the beginning of 1950, an experienced administrator from the British Colonial Service arrived to take over the UNESCO's Project Directorship. He did not find an encouraging situation. No dependable staff existed. The report of the sociological survey which was to be the basis for the programme was unavailable (although a draft copy of it had been deposited in the project files). Much needed agricultural survey, recommended by UN mission six months earlier was not done.

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[244] The precise form of responsibility and the nature of legal agreement was worked out, with the advice of an expert in International Law, in consultation with the Government of Haiti.

[245] At about the same time it was learned that the Government of Haiti had formally requested the UN to undertake a complete survey of the country's economy, agriculture, health and education. Then UNESCO had to conclude that its pilot project must mark time pending the comprehensive findings of UN mission.

[246] UNESCO was later criticized for starting a programme concurrently with the survey instead waiting for Dr.Metraux's study which should had been the basis of action. Though, accordingly to Kendric Marshall, Dr. Metraux's report was not made available to project Director even after UNESCO has been in Haiti over two years (Kendric Marshall,"The Fundamental Education Programme of UNESCO. Harvard Education Review, 20, 146, Summer. 1950)

This Director had achieved amazing results in his very first year. A staff of competent and enthusiastic Haitians was assembled. A medical clinic and dispensary, an industrial crafts building, a dormitory for top staff, a mess and a kitchen were constructed. A day school for children and adult classes were in session. The WHO doctor and nurse were treating around 250 patients daily. An adequate supply of pure water had been provided. Fifteen thousand sisal plants were distributed and a class was learning to weave sisal fibres into squares for floor coverings. There was a large export market for these floor coverings, which brought 20 cents apiece to their weavers. A local producers' and consumers' co-operative was established. A local agronomist started teaching the peasants how to lay out contour terraces and prevent additional erosion. A 4-H club was teaching the inhabitants how to make a new type of building brick.

After much preliminary paper work had been done, Creole spelling and grammar was systematized so that textbooks and other educational material could be prepared. The first manuscripts, with attractive Haitian illustrations, were completed by the end of 1949. These publications included the books for those who had just learnt to read and for more advanced literates. To get them cheaply and quickly reproduced, Unesco sent a small multigraph press to Haiti. Numerous tests were carried out to arrive at simple visual presentations which conformed clearly enough with local symbolism for the people to interpret them correctly.

The education work of the whole Valley was assisted by a local newspaper produced in Creole by teachers of Fond Melon Region. The paper, in which people were encouraged to voice their complaints and state their views, gave news the local interest. It described how the project was progressing and was quite useful in stimulating social action in the Valley. The paper also provided interseting reading material for new literates.

The next important step was to train local teachers for work both in schools and in adult education campaigns. It was a two year course. Of the three groups of student teachers graduated by the summer of 1953, the first was at work in the Marbial Valley itself, the other two elsewhere in Haiti. Additional provinces had requested the Marbial project to train instrutors. These teachers returned to their own villages to lead in carrying out local improvements. Prominent villagers were marshaled to undertake soil conservation, improvement of roads and water resources, and construction of local education centres, clinics and markets[247].

Once fully launched, the project began to have its effects in Haiti over and above its influence on the Valley of Marbial. It was a very "sick" valley, and the task before UNESCO was herculean. After three years of work the centre had a group of buildings, including an experimental primary school, a small clinic, a dental clinic, a stock-raising centre, two vegetable gardens, several workshops for handicraft training, a co-operative and apopular education centre for training of the social workers. It has been said that "slow but definite progress has been made - and more quickly than might have been expected"[248].

This project was taken over by the Government of Haiti, and UNESCO's direct participation (i.e. financial and provision of a Director) came to an end. This was in accordance to the agreement with the Haitian Government, UNESCO terminated direct assistance to Marbial Project at the end of 1953, but continued to help it as an "Associated Project". The Haitian Government carried forward the work, primarily through rural schools, with assistance from graduates of UNESCO's regional fundamental education centre at Patzuaro in Mexico.

Problems

Progress in Marbial had certainly been slow, and the difficulties of various kinds had arisen which were quite unforeseen. Personnel difficulties were present, complicated negotiations had to be carried on for the division of responsibilities between the government of Haiti, UNESCO and other United Nations agencies. And, of course, financial problems had to be overcome. The problem of financing the project had been mentioned from time to time. Giving up the project seemed easier than carrying it over due to financial problems. The Project was in deep fiscal trouble even before it was officially inaugurated. The Project had to struggle with the exteremly meagre annual budget of $66,000, most of which was not even available at the start of the fiscal year. The contributions, either in cash or in service from foundations and from voluntary organizations, had been of greatest value to the project.

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[247] UNESCO Features, No. 100.(26th June 1953), pp.6-8

[248] UNESCO, The Right to Education, Paris, 1952. p. 37.(UNESCO and its Programme -VIII)

One of the difficulties with the project was that being an international effort, it became unfortunate victim of over-publicity in the world's press, which has detrimental effect of creating false hopes among the peasants of the valley. The effect was that those impoverished people expected a lot more than UNESCO could concievably offer them. For example, in the early days of the project, rumours circulated in America and in Haiti that UNESCO would be able to put US$ 200,000 into the project. This report was quite unfounded and the sum mentioned was in fact more than the total annual budget available to UNESCO for its fundamental education programme throughout the world.

From the very begining UNESCO was skeptical about Haitian Government's choice of site. FAO, invited by UNESCO to participate in the project expressed grave doubts about the location. The eleven year drought had created so many problems which were unmanageable that the Director-General of UNESCO had to ask the Haitian Government to take the neccessary steps to resolve "certain" preliminary difficulties". The Director-General stressed the danger of raising illusory hopes among the people of Marbial by premature action undertaken without any assurance that the conditions essential to the success of the project had been fulfilled. While United Nations Technical Mission was examinig the problems of economic development in Haiti, Dr. Fredrick Rex, UNESCO's field representative in Fundamental Education, discussed the problems of the site with Dr. Metraux. He reported pessimistically on conditions there but proceeded to assist the peasants, who were bitterly disappointed at the possibility of UNESCO abandoning their valley, in organising a programme of self-help[249].

UNESCO had to fulfil its promise of finding a highly qualified expert in fundamental education to act as Director of the project. This was by no means easy. And when a person of all the necessary qualifications was appointed as Director some serious religious and personal difficulties had arisen between him and the staff of the project in Marbial, that the work was brought temporarily to a stand-still. A drastic solution was agreed upon by Haitian Government and UNESCO and all the members of the staff were dismissed with the possibility of re-appointment under a new Director. This complete disruption of staff was serious (but not disastrous) though the proceedings of the project suffered for some time.

UNESCO's dependence on other UN agencies was quite obvious in this project. Owing to circumtances it was not possible to develop the plan without working co-operatively with FAO and WHO. Co-operation was produced in the later stage as the pilot project developed so there were problems of dimarcation of responsibilities and lack of understanding among these agencies.

Conclusion

In judging the project after all these years it seems that it was highly ambitious and too idealistic in its goals. UNESCO's experiment in the Marbial Vally suffered more than its quota of mistakes. Success was uneven[250]. Methods of cultivation were improved, but the problem of poor soil remained far from solution. Yet the people of this "forgotten valley" were learning to help themselves and others. UNESCO's decision to work in such an unpromising area seemed to have been justified by its results in the valley and in Haiti as a whole.

The experiment was also of value to UNESCO, which learned more from this less successful activity than from other activities which can be judged more successful. It became clear that in such projects a thorough preliminary study of the area is necessary in order to understand the people's way of life and their special problems. Co-operation and support from all channels is welcomed (such as given by Catholic priests and Protestant churches in the later stage of the Marbial undertaking). Official support, especially in economic development, is needed if the initial impetus is to be sustained. Co-ordination of educational efforts with agricultural, health, and other technical services ,including assignment of responsibilities among several interested UN agencies is essential but not always easy. Further, it is important to develop a sense of community participation through constructive cooperation by the local inhabitants. Literacy campaigns require expert guidance, solution of tough linguistic problems, and provision of appropriate reading material.

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[249] Later the reports from Marbial showed that aftercoming of rains the people themselves had worked with amazing enthusiasm to make it possible for the pilot project to be continued.

[250] Laves and Thomson, op.cit., p. 144

This project illustrates what UNESCO meant by fundamental education. It would be impossible to say that the Haiti Pilot project has thrown much light on the problems of fundamental education as such; but it brought in focus many preliminary and administrative difficulties. It became clear that UNESCO, with its limited means and still more limited freedom of action, cannot undertake such a task as this without careful and prolonged preparation, and then too in collaboration with other organizations and other United Nations agencies. This experience somewhat showed that to expect big things and to expect them quickly and cheaply from UNESCO is a mistake. For UNESCO it meant more synchronization in policies and programmes, and more thorough and careful planning and good cooperation with other agencies.

APPENDIX V: Functional Literacy in Mali

In 1960, Mali became independent. One of the main concerns of its leaders then was to achieve economic development and to restore to their country its erstwhile prestige. Education was considered essential to the attainment of such an ambition and there was a substantial increase in the number of schools in the first five year plan of the Government. The problem of education in Mali was, however, a huge one. The percent of adult illiterates was about 90% and the remaining 10% literates were mainly city dwellers. Inspite of the increase in the number of schools and a proportionate increase in the number of pupils, after independence; the proportion of children enrolled was still low on account of the rate of growth of the population[251]. Even to stabilize the number of illiterates in this age group many new classes would have to be started.

In 1960 Mali began a mass literacy effort and by 1965 there were about 600 literary centres operating throughout the country. This literacy work drew heavily on the school model. It took some form in every part of the country, French was used for instruction and this instruction was provided in schools in the evening after the normal classes. These literacy programmes were basically directed towards the school drop-outs. The aim of economic and social development along modern technological lines made Malian authorities to link traditional literacy more closely to general economic development they were promoting. It meant that at least some of the workers must be able to make proper use of the techniques and equipment involved in such development, and must accordingly be trained for the purpose. Mali, therefore, had been an early advocate of education linked to economic development. Mali was one of the first countries, in Teheran Conference, to opt for participation in a new large-scale programme, promoted by the United Nations---The Experimental World Literacy Programme (EWLP). So, to test the principles of functional, selective and intensive literacy work, Mali was chosen alongwith two other counries, Algeria and Iran[252].

A UNESCO planning mission visited Mali in 1965 to assist the government in the preparation of a functional literacy project. Preparatory work started in 1966 and by the beginning of 1967, nine experts were already working in the project.

POLICY AND OBJECTIVES

The Plan of Operation, signed in February 1967, stated two main objectives:

1. To reinforce the National Centre for Literacy Material Production, making it possible to reach 100,000 illiterate rice and cotton farmers in the region of Segou and 10,000 illiterate workers in the industrial and commercial enterprises of the State.
2. To explore and test the most suitable methods and techniques for the training of illiterate farmers and workers with a view to improving their productivity and raising their standard of living.

From the very beginning it was agreed upon that in literacy teaching there would not be French teaching (as was done earlier). Instead, illiterates would be taught in their own language. Secondly, though the project was national in scope certain methods and materials would be developed and tested in the pilot areas where government had development enterprises under way in rice, cotton, and groundnut production. Since there was never any division between the functional literacy project and the national programme,there was no confusion regarding the policy as existed in many other experimental projects. The Mali government gave complete support to UNDP/UNESCO Project and this international assistance was used to strengthen a national commitment.

THE LINGUISTIC INFRASTRUCTURE

Literacy instruction in Mali, like school education, was in French. But teaching peasants to write and read in the official language was a big problem, because what they learned from the course could not easily be put to any use in an essentially rural setting. The need was to provide functional literacy courses for farmers in the languages naturally spoken by adults, so as to convey technical knowledge to them more easily and facilitate instruction is reading and writing.

Literacy and language policy had received careful attention from the Mali Council of Ministers. Even before the Pilot Project was launched, in order to facilitate its preparation; the Government of Mali had decided to limit the number of languages selected for functional literacy to four[253]. In 1967, the council passed a decree giving official status to a new language transcription system[254]. This system used the same alphabet for transcribing the four national languages selected for functinal literacy programme. These four languages were Mande, Fulani, Songhai and Tamashek. The four languages selected were not only the most widespread and representative of quite distinct linguistic families but were also used as language of communication by other liguistic groups.

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[251] Which increases the country's population each year by over 100,000. Studies on this subject show that the age groups between 15 and 35 are joined annually by 50,000 illiterates. (Dumont, op.cit., 1973, p.15

[252] EWLP: A Critical Assessment, op.cit., pp.77-87

The work continued on the basis of 1967 decree, with priority for the Mande group whose three dialects, Bambara, Malinke and Diula, were the languages of the cotton and rice growers (as this group was given priority by Mali Government in the formof functional literacy cources for the farmers.) In the very beginning of the project, by 1968, two studies essential to the use of Bambara, on spelling and vocabulary were completed.

THE NOTION OF FUNCTIONALITY

The notion of "functionality" is somewhat complex. According to Dumont[255] it may mean at least three things:

(a) first, in order to be functional knowledge must be usable in his everyday activities by the person acquiring it;

(b) secondly, such knowledge should enable anyone to improve his functional performance within his group; and, in the case of pilot projects, the function concerned is production, enabling the adult to keep himself and his family and to improve his living conditions, for these are the deepest and most enduring motivations;

(c) finally, it must be possible to acquire this knowledge in the course of productive activities.

By comparing the various conceptions relating to the term it becomes clear that the aim of functional literacy is not to teach people to read and write; its aim is to provide the producer with better tools. It so happens that these tools must include written communication, that is, the use of writing for calculation and communication. For example, the groundnut producers' programme of Mali was truly functional. The producers were taught to use balance, not only because it interested them keenly but also because at the market they would be able to use their knowledge to check that the dealer buying their produce does not cheat them over the quantity or price of the goods purchased. That is an instance of real functionality where the ability to read and write figures means that a proper check can be kept on weighing operations when items are marketed.

IMPLEMENTATATION

According to data available about 2,000 literacy centres were opened between the beginning of the project (1967) and 1972, with about forty participants enrolled per centre. It was estimated that some 83,000 illiterates were reached by the project, of whom about 50,000 completed a literacy programme. The number of centres and the enrolments fluctuated in accordance with the agricultural calender. Participants were distributed in the agricultural sector as follows: cotton, 60%; groundnuts, 30%; Niger river development project, 7%; rice,3%. A special programme for women was prepared and implemented in several pilot centres . The dominant demographic group in all programmes was of male adult between 15 to 25, except in the programmes specifically for implemented for women. Many of these participants migrated to cities in the four months between February and May for the sale of the corps and this slowed down literacy activities considerably. The linguistic homogeneity of groups was high, with a few exceptions which required special programme adustment. In preparation of content and material, the project had assumed that the technical and educational level of the participants was roughly the same in all the cases.

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[253] By comparison with other African countries, Mali has relatively few (less than ten) languages spoken there.

[254] It was at the request of Mali and a few other West African countries that a conference was held in Bamako in February-March,1966 to assess the studies required for transcription of national languages. UNESCO played an important part in the Conference. The problem was complicated by the fact that in each of these countries there were several languages. It was, therefore, necessary that all of these countries should agree to adopt the same transcription system. All the languages used in Mali are used in neighbouring countries as well. Therefore after the conclusion of the Bamako Conference, Mali had to devote a great deal of effort to finalise the recommendations.

[255] Bernard Dumont, Functional Literacy in Mali: Training for Development UNESCO, Paris,1973.

ADMINISTRATION AND ORGANIZATION

At the national level, the project was integrated into the fundamental education and literacy service and, as of 1969, into the General Directorate for Fundamental Education and Literacy, under the authority of the Minister of National Education, Youth and Sports. The functional literacy service was headed by a national director responsible for the national centre for the production and diffusion of literacy material. The actual operations were subdivided into seven regions each headed by a director. A special literacy committee was usually set up at the grass-roots level to assess the achievement towards the end of the project.

Functional literacy was viewed as a means of transmitting vocational knowledge and skills, technical, scientific and socio economic information as well as guidance related to health and industrial security. The need to develop effective literacy programmes in national language was taken into account. One of chief achievemnets of the project was the development of an instructional system capable of teaching a large number of adults in different languages. This was reflected by the decision of the national authorities to create the National Institute of Functional Literacy and Applied Linguistics after closing of the project.

The notion of 'functionality' was accepted by the various development ministries in Mali, ensuring the taking over of literacy activities by development structures themselves. The technical services became involved in the actual execution of literacy programmes after observing the practical results obtained in the other areas of the country. Subsequently, many diversified and decentralized literacy activities which could be carried on by community based organizations were developed. The project covered 81 districts (out of 250) and 14 administrative units (out of 42). Though in the end of the project 2000 centres were operating the project only scratched the surface seeing the magnitude of the problem. Ninety per cent of population was illiterate when the project began, with the 10 per cent literate population mainly residing in urban areas. This complexity of the problem led to the recognition of fact that literacy instruction should be decentralized and should come under the supervision of those locally responsible for different development enterprises.

TEACHERS AND OTHER PERSONNEL

In all about 2,000 instructors were trained by the project personnel (95% men and 5% women). Over 90 per cent of these were of the same professional and demographic background as the participants, six per cent were professional foremen and one per cent were primary school teachers. Ninety per cent of these instructors had not finished primary school. The selection of these instructors was made by local community or the production unit. A training session of three to five days was organized for selected instructors in which they were made familiar with the new teaching material and were also introduced to the use of mass media as a support device in the educational process. These training sessions usually involved development activities. The regionl literacy directors were responsible for their training and supervision. They were directly supervised by specially trained personnel. A number of specialists in linguistics and preparation of education materials were also trained by the internat ional experts.

CURRICULUM AND METHODS

The areas of operation were selected by the Planning Ministry. The linkage between literacy and agricultural extension was well recognised as an essential component of all agricultural programmes but application of extension concept to industrial programmes was found dificult by the officials. Once the area and target population had been identified, a special team was set up and started the task. This team consisted of a photographer to produce problem oriented posters, a specialist in vocational training, industrial or agricultural; a programme evaluator. This team visited the agricultural or industrial enterprise, surveyed the production process and found the possible problematic areas. Both supervisory personnel and the illiterate workers were involved in this process of surveying the operations and finding the problems. An educational programme based on these years was designed which usually covered the period of two years. Different programmes were initiated for different socio-economic groups.

TEACHING MATERIAL

The production of teaching material was entrusted to a National Production Centre . The programme was structured into two stages each corresponding to a full year of instruction. Each stage was subdivided into twenty sequences for agricultural programme and thirty eight for the industrial programme. Each sequence had the same structure. The practical and professional content was presented by the extension workers in agricultural areas and by technical sevice personnel in the industrial side. The practical demonstration was then utilized in the presentation of literacy materials. The technical information not only touched upon specific economic subjects but also covered social, hygienic, and nutritional topics. The process was then followed by literacy skill training. The literacy materials,in turn, were prepared in the context of technical and professional content of the programme. A key sentence was presented on each subject under discussion which was accompanied by pictorial presentation. The sentence was broken down in various parts to constitute new words in accordance to learning process. The key innovation introduced by Mali functional literacy project was the link of literacy with practical demonstration and extension work. It started from concrete and moved towards abstract with the help of various media. Each problem poster was accompanied by a technical sheet which was later expanded to include methodological guidance for instructors with technical information. The material for the second stage was more general and dealt with economic and civic problems such as the role of production in agriculture, the nature of public services, investments, savings etc. At this stage the learners were provided with small booklets and the project also prepared some films and radio programmes. A nationally distributed newspaper,*Kibaru*, was created, which was distributed freely to the participants of literacy class in the beginning but it later sold successfully in the whole village. The project althrough suffered from the distribution problem because of the limited infrastructure of communication in the country.

COSTS

The costs of the project as reported by the UNESCO Literacy Division's Evaluation Unit shows actual expenditure of US$ 2,500,300 when the estimated expenditure was of US $ 4,248,100 . Both the funding sources UNDP and the government spent US $ 1,400,700 and US $ 1,099,600 respectively. Whereas UNDP spent more than planned US$ 1,176,500 the government spent far less than the estimation of US$ 3,070,600. This was mainly due to the use of incentives, food stuff etc., which was used to attract the volunteers and local teachers but their cost was not included in the expenditure. Further, according to final reports estimate the cost per learner came around US$ 30. The Gross National Product of Mali was estimated US$ 50 per capita, at the conclusion of the project. Even if it was assumed that it would take half of the amount to literate an individual, it would take nearly half year's GNP to bring 90 per cent illiterates at the minimum level of literacy skill. Then there were expenditure on reading materials and teaching professionals, even volunteers offer their services.

EVALUATION AND RESEARCH

The Evaluation Unit of the Mali project encountered many difficulties which hindered its work. Among the most significant difficulties were inadequate material conditions (transportation, offices, assistants etc.), lack of counterpart personnel, gaps of some six months between departure and arrival of each of the three international evaluation specialists, and the slow implementation of operations.

Furthermore some resistance to evaluation occurred at the local level since, in a setting of voluntary action, it often appeared as an unwanted control. an additional burden was the need to meet certain external standards of the EWLP which the local authorities were never able to entirely comprehend.

During the 1967-68 period, studies were carried out on demographic, economic and social problems in the target zones. During this period, the Evaluation Unit participated in the preparation of some programmes. Several efforts were made to institute an information system on enrollments but this support service never functioned properly for various logistical reasons.

In 1969, a baseline survey was started covering a sample of 64 villages (32 experimental and 32 controlled). Each group was divided into sub-categories according to the size of the community, linguistic characterstics, and part played by cotton growing (important or not important). Specially trained personnel conducted field-work utilizing an extensive extensive interview shedule and observation sheet. The analysis of baseline took one year . Many difficulties arose due to fluctuations in literacy centres and even a year later, the number of centres which had actually completed their programmes was too small to permit a valid survey.

A special study was conducted in an industrial setting on the learning level reached by the participants of a first-stage programme. This evaluation helped in reorganization of the programme and in constitution of more homogeneous groups, and the more careful selection of additional workers for further vocational training related to enterprise's needs.

Unfortunately, evaluative studies undertaken by the UNESCO team were never completed, and although there were good baseline data, follow-up studies were carried out only in certain villages.

RESULTS

The results of Malian project are numerous and varied, they are found in different areas and are quite rich in promise. The project had been successful in establishing a large number of functional literacy centres which had positive effect on the standard of knowledge of farm workers and on production. The introduction of functional literacy teaching aroused great interest throughout Mali, and this form of education received widespread support.

The experience of functional literacy in Mali showes in practice that education can be geared to development. The method was geared to development in following ways;

> "by the selection of groups and the organization of work, based at all levels on that of Development Operations;
> by the well-defined nature of the various programmes, designed to solve the key problems of production and social affairs,
> by its conception of the best forms of action at the lowest level, a conception based on the association and participation of communities---villages or undertakings---in the organization and operation of functional literacy training and follow-up work afterwards. The setting up of literacy committees with gradually increasing responsibility is another important factor in bringing about social and economic changes in communities and at the same time a practical introduction to democratic life;
> because unit and overall costs are low, as the work is done by voluntary staff and extremely simple teaching materials and methods are used - everything is governed by the scarcity of resources;
> lastly, by its efficiency, since the investment that the training of a farm worker represents produces immediate results (it affects his production and his participation in social activities) and cumulative results (it makes it possible, financially and psychologically, for new centres to be opened, while increasing the value of other investments in material equipment)." [256]

The Mali experience of functional literacy was considered the most sophisticated and one of the more successful of the projects. It was successful particularly in integrating functional literacy in into national development schemes because of decentralised operational activities, by placing responsibility squarely in the hands of local development enterprises. There were the problems of communication, high drop-outs, inefficient distribution of teaching materials the project could be called successful as it was followed up by national efforts, literacy activities were expanding and they received good grass root support both among the participants and local productive organizations.

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[256] B.Dumont, op. cit. , P. 62

APPENDIX VI: Upper Volta: Education for Rural Women

INTRODUCTION

Every human being has the right to education. This principle has been proclaimed and confirmed in number of declarations and international conventions.[257] Enjoyment of this right is not always ensured in the case of men, and even less so in the case of women. The latter are often victims of discrimination which arises from various causes and is followed by various consequences. All types of inequalities still characterize the position of women in most societies despite the attempts made to improve their status in recent decades. Equality of access to education for girls and women is a priority subject of concern in the field of education.

The experimental project initiated in late sixties in Upper Volta[258] illustrates the major thrusts of UNESCO's operational activities. The project was conceived in the general framework of promoting equal educational opportunities for women and their integration into development, but aimed specifically to the needs of the women in the country. The project in Upper Volta had concentrated on creating the basic preconditions for educating women in isolated rural areas, and on designing education programmes which contribute to rural development.

THE BACKGROUND

Upper Volta is a country in West Africa with some 5 million people(according to 1970 figures), with few roads and no coastline. Upper Volta is poorest among the poor countries of the world, and one of the most under- developed[259]. The total population is divided among a great number of ethnic and linguistic groups[260]. The total land area is approximately 400,000 square kilometers. Population density varies in different parts of the country[261]. Almost 95 per cent of the population is engaged in agriculture, most of them in smallholder subsistence farming on lands of communal ownership. Employment opportunities outside the agricultural sector are very few. Agricultural practices applied by the farmers of Upper Volta are primitive, most of the agricultural work is being done with hand implements. The average agricultural yields of Upper Volta are among the lowest in Africa.

During the decade of the sixties, Upper Volta, like other developing countries, had adopted education as one of the means to solve the numerous and complex developmental problems of the country. The enterprise was ambitious. Though Government was spending a quarter of the national income on education, only 10 per cent of the total age group were enrolled in primary schools, and 5,000 of 7,000 villages lacked school facilities. Most of these ten per cent were boys and almost all of them from towns. This meant that half of the population of this developing country – the women – remained underdeveloped. The educational prospects of girls and women were very limited and the situation of rural women was really critical. Oppressed by traditions, grinding domestic and agricultural tasks, and with little educational facilities, the rural girls and women formed the most disadvantaged group of the population.

INITIATION

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[257] Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

[258] From "Women, Education, Equality: A Decade of Experiment", Unesco Press, Paris, 1975. Based on the report provided by the Upper Volta National Commission for UNESCO; "Project Experimental: Egalite d'Acces des Femmes et des Jeunes Filles a l'Education, Ouagadougou, May, 1974.

[259] For example, per capita income is estimated at less than US $50 per annum. Andrew M. Kamarck in The Economics of African Development. (New York: Praeger Publishers, 1971), p. 56, lists Upper Volta as one of the three African countries (together with Burundi and Somalia) with the lower per capita GNP.

[260] Of the whole population the Mossi and assimilated groups are dominant with some 3.5 million people. (These figures vary between sources, as ethnicity is defined differently by different authors.)

[261] The average is 13 inhabitants per square kilometer, but it is only 2 per square kilometer in some parts and reaches over 50 in most densely populated regions. Upper Volta: Alternative to Primary Schools p. 336, in Manzoor Ahmed and Philip H. Coombs' "Education for Rural Development: Case Studies for Planners". New York; Praeger Publishers. 1975.

Deciding on a systematic effort to improve the access of women and girls in rural areas to education and their contribution to development the Government of Upper Volta expressed a desire to participate in UNESCO's experimental programme in 1966.

The agreement signed by the Government of Upper Volta and UNESCO in 1968, outlined a broad and multidimensional programme for the rural women of Upper Volta. The project was to be carried on for ten years. It was decided that in the beginning there would be implementation in several pilot regions which would eventually be extended to other parts of the country. Sociological studies of these pilot regions were planned in order to determine the position of rural women in the society, to find out their needs and determine the obstacles to their access to education. An adult literacy programme was to be developed to meet the needs and interests of the rural women. Appropriate teaching materials and equipment had to be developed and produced. Importance of technical education, both in school and in informal setting, was recognised so that women might improve the standard of living of their families and the small girls in the school be better equipped for the future. The project was to undertake the the training of teachers, instructors and feminine leadership in the villages so in the future the programme could be carried out.

UNESCO was to be responsible for providing the services of experts in the number of fields, such as technical education for women, literacy, sociology, production of audio-visual aids. The Organization was also responsible for financing equipment and training courses as well as various types of fellowships. The Government of Upper Volta was to provide the necessary physical facilities and staff. The government was also to make available the information and documentation at its disposal as well as the country's research facilities. Financing of these programmes was from a number of sources---UNESCO contributed from its regular programme funds in the beginning. In the final stage, UNDP was the major source of funds. Other international organizations also contributed, as did various bilateral aid programmes and non-governmental organizations.

ORGANIZATION

Basically the project was implemented under the aegeis of the Ministry of Education of Upper Volta, but it was apparent from the earliest stages that close collaboration of other agencies was required. The project was, thus,initiated by a central committee composed of the representatives of many interested agencies. For example, representatives from the ministries of education, health, social affairs, of finance and commerce participated, the representatives of primary education and the directors of rural development were there, a woman jurist and a representative of women's organizations of Upper Volta were present, the project's chief technical adviser and national co-ordinator and the Sectretary of National Commission for UNESCO composed the Committee. Apart from this apparent co-operation various lines of co-operation were established with other ministries and government services, with private and bilateral aid organizations and other international agencies (in particular with ILO and FAO).

Basic administrative structure of the execution comprised a national co-ordinating team, which was responsible for formulating programming and co-ordinating project activities on the national level. This team, headed by the national co-ordinator, was in close co-operation with regional teams and national and international experts and specialists. Qualified secondary and primary school teachers constituted this team and they were trained further under the project. The regional teams were responsible for lesding and directing personnel working in the villages, including instrctors, village leaders, literacy workers and medical men and midwives recruited locally.

IMPLEMENTATION

Prior starting the plan of operations a background investigation of the situation of rural women was taken up to determine their needs, modes of action and to designate the pilot regions. The survey provided an over-all view of the situation of women in a traditional agrarian society. The life in Upper Volta was hard and harder for females. The women were the backbone of economy in Upper Volta. They cultivated the fields, produced goods necessary for the family, sold the execess produce in the local markets and were responsible for all domestic work. They had to fetch water, collect wood, cook meals two times a day, mill grain and care and raise the children. Although the land was mainly cultivated by women they were quite ignorant of modern agricultural methods. The investigation report mentioned that sheer fatigue was not the only obstacle, extemely low income, the lack of free time[262], the persistence of rural tradition[263], the prevalence of disease and high infant mortality rate all due to the lack of the knowledge of basic hygiene and nutrition, all these above mentioned causes were hindrance to women's education in Upper Volta.

Due to this preliminary work they had several identified priorities as targets when the operations began. It resulted in the postponement of the literacy programme until the physical burdens of the rural women could be alleviated so educational programmes in health, hygiene and nutrition were developed. The other recognised priorities were water, the family, stockrearing and agriculture.

To decide about the zones where the experimental project may be carried out the UNESCO adviser[264] gathered data on the ethnic and linguistic variety[265] of the areas visited, their degree of economic development, the possibility of the use of audio-visual measures in those regions, and how much useful research had been carried out there. The chief technical adviser met the local chiefs, teachers, officials engaged in development and agriculture and local health officials. She also met the villagers to clarify the aims of the project, for it was realized from the very beginning that the project could only succeed if the people involved understood and supported its aims.

As a further consequence of the survey, three pilot pilot zones were chosen for implementation of the project: Banfora in the west, which was most developed, Po in the south, which was poorest, and Kongoussi in the north, which offered an irrigated zone, with an agricultural co-operative where new farming techniques were used, and an area where the farmers kept the old traditions and old methods of farming. It was here in this region that the project was launched.

Kangoussi, where village society was organized along patriarchal lines, women had a very low status in the community. After the sociological survey of 1969, a plan was worked out to implement the project in two phases: a prepartory phase consisting of an information campaign to increase receptiveness to the project among the villagers – both men and women accompanied by a programme of practical community development activities, and a second phase devoted to the implementation of literacy programme.

In the first phase, the project concentrated on activities designed to resolve the basic problems of village women. Water supply was an obvious priority and it was decided to sink twentyfive wells in Kongoussi villages, the villagers provided labour and local authorities helped in revetting and concreting. A special UNESCO Gift Coupon project was launched to allow people in many countries to contribute to the costs of the wells and support UNESCO's work. Mechnical mills were installed for grinding grain and buildings were made for community education and nursing classes.

Health and hygiene education was a major element of the programme. Two preliminary seminars were held on this subject, in which women from twenty-eight villages were given the instruction in farming techniques, family budgeting, and civic-education as well as experimental literacy instruction. These seminars showed the way of establishing village centres, where instructed women could pass on the knowledge they had gained, and also of farming cooperatives. In some villages maternity centres were established, traditional mid-wives were trained in special classes, and village women were initiated into the elements of better child care. The importance of sanitation was emphasised and facilities were installed. Women were taught how to manufacture water filters to prevent contamination of drinking water as well as techniques for improving the family diet and housekeeping methods. The program included better utilization of available resources of revenue, instruction in gardening and poultry-raising techniques,sewing and traditional handicrafts. Encouraged to cultivate co-operative fields under the direction of the instructors the woemn became involved in community work. Women from two communities worked together in the fields for the first time in 1969. They used their newly learned methods for preparing the soil, manuring seed beds, planting in rows, weeding and thinning[266]. Radios were provided and village listening groups were formed to listen and discuss local language broadcasts designed to reinforce the community education programmes.

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[262] In dry season women often walk several miles to the nearest well.

[263] Because a literate woman tends to seek a job in town and the rural family looses a helping hand and the girl is not available for an early marriage.

[264] The chief technical adviser of UNESCO was a Senegalese woman who was specializing in literacy and lifelong education.

[265] There are as many as 245 dialects.

[266] Consequently, they were able to harvest several hundredweight of millet and to sell their cotton.

By 1970, the international experts began developing a literacy programme relevant to the needs and experience of the rural women, with the help of local specialists. A concentrated effort was made to transcribe Moore, the language of Kongoussi, work on which had made no progress for several years and which up to that time remained unwritten. A transcription into the Roman alphabet was agreed on and an expert in functional literacy could start preparing a programme of instruction. Since water, its rarity and its quality,was the dominating factor in the lives of the women to betaught, it was also the principal theme of the early instruction. For example, in their very first instructional class the women were taught how to make simple water filters of layers of charcoal, pebbles, and sand. And the first phase they learned to spell was "Tond todka ed Koom", which meant 'we filter our water'. They learned simple arithmetic concerning quantities of filtered water.

The courses, which must be held in dry season, consisted of three six-month periods spread over three years, the first dealt with basic reading and writing and arithmetic, the second the reading of technical handbooks in Moore and the third elementary French. Audio-visual techniques were used and the lessons, the lesson revolved round large picture posters which were reproduced in the learner's exercise books. The two-hour session started with a discussion of the poster, then continued with reading, writing for fifteen minutes and then half an hour of simple mathematics.

Implementation of the project in the second pilot zone, Banfora, began in 1970. The sociological survey of this region revealed the same problems of educational opportunities for rural women which were present in Kongoussi, but there were certain differences. The zone was more prosperous due to climatic conditions and some rural women here owned lands which was not the case in Kongoussi. This zone had added problem of numerous ethnic and linguistic groups, (although Dioula is widespread as vernacular language). Here the first literacy class could be started in 1974.

The approach in Banfora was not much different from Kongoussi but Kongoussi project had to face certain problems beacuse of voluntary instructors[267]. Implementation of the programme in Banfora region was carried out in co-operation with the Organization for Rural Development (ORD), a government agency. The ORD instructors were trained under the project. With this staff, though in insignificant numbers, the effectiveness of the project was increased[268]. The training of village mid-wives was carried out in the maternity clinic of Banfora town where the participants learned by observing the professional staff.

The project was extended in Po region in 1972. Implementation in Po was comparatively easier than the other two projects, as it could profit by the previous experiences and avoid certain mistakes which had been made. Moreover, Po was more developed region where women enjoyed a higher status, spoke freely in community affairs possessed the right to marry as they pleased. The project in Po could get the full support of women. Furthermore, the approach adopted in Po was little different too. The sociological survey was undertaken concomitantly with implementation not before it. After the initial contacts with local authorities and village chiefs, discussions with women started immediately. In some villages a UNESCO committee was formed, with elected officers, to support and carry out the work of project efficiently.

In May 1972, a training of women village leaders began with participants from twenty villages. During the course these leaders also participated in planning out two-year preliteracy programme in Po region. These included: construction of an adult education centre in each village, exploitation of a common field, installation of water filters and latrines, installation of and putting into operation of co-operative equipment (a mechnical mill, a radio, a cart), further training of village midwives, improvement of diet, and development of village crafts through technical instruction. The community development programme was more successful in Po because of these women leaders, who held positions of influence in their communities. The development of a literacy programme for zone was also facilitated by the widespread usage of the Kassena language of which a written form already existed. The literacy programme began in 1975.

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[267] In the first years of the project voluntary instructors were used in Kongoussi, both in informal village classes and for literacy instruction. This approach proved unsuccessful as the voluntary instructors had limited means of earning a living and were unable to give continuous and sustained support to the programme without remunerationfor their work.

[268] These ORD instructors were trained both as literacy teachers and community educators were placed in all three pilot zones.

STAFF TRAINING

From its earliest stages one of the concern of the project was to train the staff required on all levels, national, regional, and local both for implementation and extension. In addition to above mentioned courses in leadership, training coourses for mid-wives and literacy instructors special training programmes for those selected to serve on central and regional teams were also developed. These teams were recruited from among qualified teachers of secondary and primary levels. These teachers were trained in methods used in formal education, and were given fellowships to study abroad. Thus this staff had been prepared to work in the fields of women's education and rural community development, audio-visual aids, adult literacy, women's technical education and in administration.

PROBLEMS

The major thrust of the project---the education of women in rural communities---had encountered many difficulties. Certain very basic conditions had hindered full implementation. For example, poor transportation and communication facilities had limited contacts with the villages and also slowed down the distribution of the material and the arrival or repair of basic equipment. There were mechanical difficulties with mills and radios installed in the villages; the penury of building in the villages, the lack of equipment for the classrooms, the lack of facilities for production and distribution of the materials for literacy classes were but a few examples of the problems encountered. The lack of water in many areas of the country had prevented the installation of a clear water supply in many villages. The lack of properly trained personnel proved a serious blockade in the successful implementation of the project. (Only ORDs trained instructors placed in staff were helpful). The literacy programme also took longer than expected because the period of three to five months per year in which the classes were held for two or three years were not sufficient to make an illiterate person literate. Furthermore, by experience it became clear that to be effective, the literacy programmes should be addressed to the men of the village as well the women. If the men remained illiterate they would not encourage their wives and daughters to take the advantage of the opportunities they themselves could not enjoy[269].

The second major aspect of this project concerned the education received by girls in the schools. It was to encourage their enrollment and attentuate their extremely high drop-out rates. To make the programme more practical and future-oriented home-economics was introduced at all levels. A complete training programme in home-economics was introduced at the secondary level. In secondary technical vocational education of rural areas, a programme leading to pedagogical qualifications in family and agricultural studies was instituted to train girls for the position as intructors in rural development. In-service and pre-service teachers training programmes were introduced. The practical component of education had been emphasised bith to improve the quality of life and to increase women's contribution in family revenue.

This project also undertook a study of vocational training and employment opportunities for women in Upper Volta. The results, however, were quite discouraging. It was found that, outside teaching and civil service, the domestic science training did not lead to employment. More over the employers expressed their unwillingness to hire women even if they had proper training. The only good opportunity for the women with secondary vocational training was to be found as instructors with ORDs.

RESULTS

The experimental project in Upper Volta produced an uneven progress due to its multiform character. But it can be concluded, that inspite the numerous difficulties encountered the project had been highly successful in many respects Its major achievement had been to bring in the awareness of the necessity of full participation of women in the development of the country and of the importance of education at all levels in achieving this. The project on the whole was very well received by local authorities and the village people. This widespread acceptance of the projects' aims and methods indicated that that the project had been successful in meeting the needs of the people.

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[269] These problems were brought into focus by the evaluation report prepared by a tripartite commission (the government, UNESCO and UNDP) in 1974 and as a result in the final phase, the project was reoriented and it was directed to village community as a whole.

The educational programme for community development directed to women had made a definite impact. On the basis of the results obtained, the gradual extension of the project throughout the seemed feasible. The experience of Upper Volta demonstrates workable approaches for improving the condition and education of girls and women in a situation where nature, tradition, and general standard of living were the hostile forces impeding development[270].

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[270] UNESCO, Education, Equality: a decade of experiment , Paris, The Unesco Press, 1975. p.32.